REPORT RESUMES

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READING IN FLORIDA SECONDARY SCHOOLS, A GUIDE.
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THIS TEACHING GUIDE WAS DEVELOPED TO PROVIDE A VARIETY OF SUGGESTIONS AND INFORMATION FOR TEACHERS INVOLVED IN A SECONDARY SCHOOL READING PROGRAM AND FOR ADMINISTRATORS AND SUPERVISORS RESPONSIBLE FOR PLANNING AND IMPLEMETING READING PROGRAMS IN HIGH SCHOOLS. THE FOLLOWING TOPICS ARE DISCUSSED--THE DEFINITIONS AND OBJECTIVES OF A READING PROGRAM, THE ADMINISTRATOR'S ROLE, THE ROLE OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL READING TEACHER, THE ROLES OF THE SCHOOL LIBRARIAN, OF THE GUIDANCE AND STUDENT PERSONNEL STAFF, OF THE SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGIST, OF THE SCHOOL NURSE, AND OF THE PARENTS, ORGANIZING SCHOOL READING PROGRAMS, READING IN THE CONTENT FIELDS, THE DEVELOPMENT OF READING AS A CONTINUOUS PROCESS, THE VERTICAL AND HORIZONTAL ASPECTS OF READING, THE INTERRELATIONSHIPS OF THE LANGUAGE ARTS, THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LISTENING AND READING, THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SPEAKING AND READING, AND BETWEEN WRITING AND READING, AND LINGUISTICS. APPENDIXES PROVIDE MANY TEACHING SUGGESTIONS AND TECHNIQUES, A BIBLIOGRAPHY, AND INFORMATION ON WHERE TO OBTAIN VARIOUS TEACHING DEVICES, MECHANICAL AIDS, FILM STRIPS AND PROGRAMED MATERIALS. A SELECTED LIST OF READING TESTS, A CHECK LIST OF READING PRACTICES IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL, AND AN EXAMPLE OF A SCOPE AND SEQUENCE CHART ARE INCLUDED. (RH)

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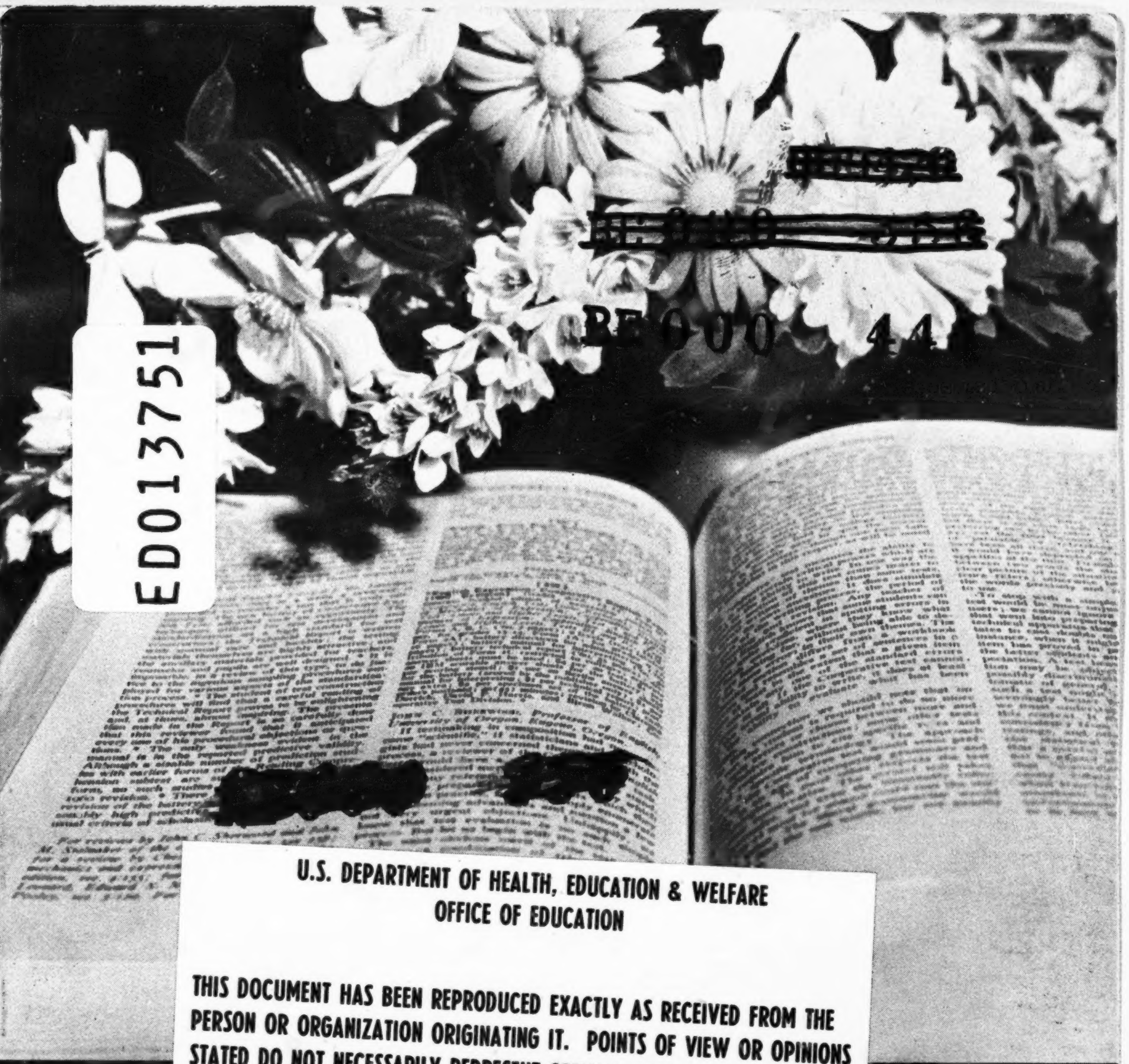

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READING IN FLORIDA SECONDARY SCHOOLS

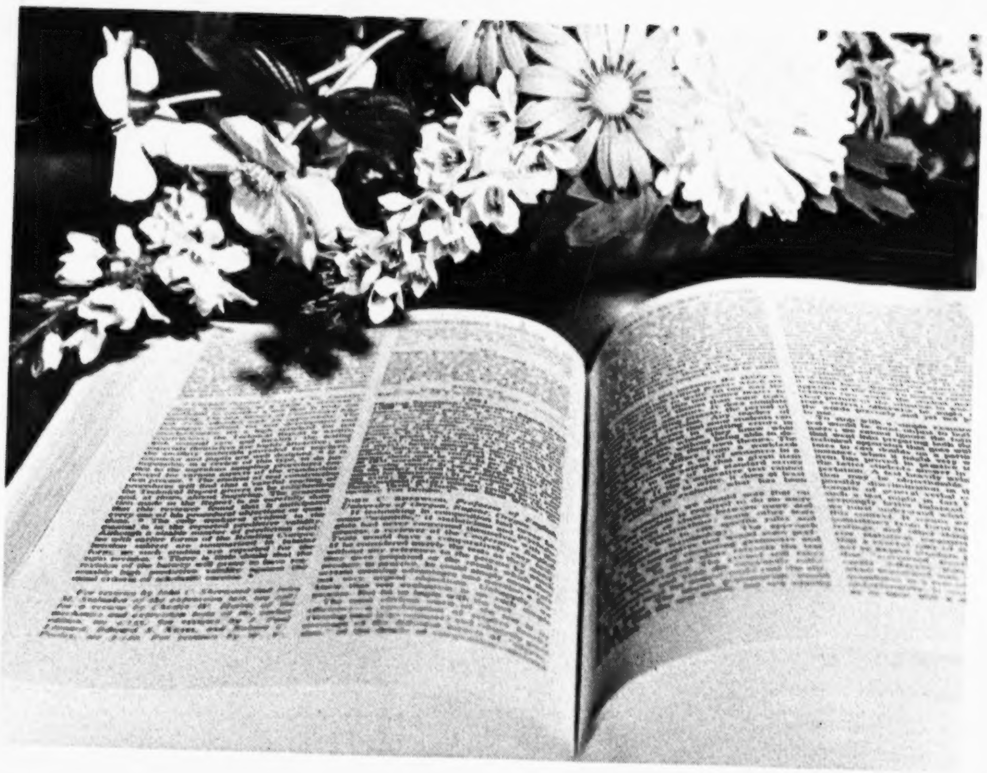
A Guide . . .

STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Tallahassee · Florida

FLOYD T. CHRISTIAN · Superintendent

BULLETIN 35C 1966

READING IN FLORIDA SECONDARY SCHOOLS · BULLETIN 35C 1966



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A *Guide . . .*

READING IN FLORIDA SECONDARY SCHOOLS

STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Tallahassee · Florida

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Foreword

SECONDARY-SCHOOL TEACHERS in every subject area have reported that a significantly large number of their students are seriously handicapped by a lack of skill in reading. Reliable evidence shows that this handicap is a contributing cause of student failures during the high school years, and that it is a constant and nagging hindrance to academic achievement for many students. Out of this identifiable need, a fresh concept to the teaching of reading has developed. Formerly considered to be totally within the educational province of the elementary school, reading instruction is now recognized as an essential component of a high-quality secondary-school program.

Further training in reading is necessary at the secondary-school level, if junior and senior high-school students are to be able to benefit from the new and improved curricula which emphasize independent study. We are faced with the problem of how to meet this need effectively. Compounding this situation are the effects of expanding enrollments, the normal variations in rates of individual development, and the mobility of the American family. Too, the noble attempt by American schools to provide universal education has yielded a wide range of student differences which call for individualization of the educational process.

Alert to this need, secondary-school teachers and administrators have already been at work in Florida holding workshops; meeting in committees; promoting faculty use of new methods and materials; and developing and employing new diagnostic instruments and remedial, corrective, and developmental techniques. Even so, few texts are still available to support reading instruction at the secondary-school level. Reading teachers are scarce. Experiments in this area are too rarely reported in professional journals and conferences.

This guide is one effort to provide a wide variety of usable suggestions and dependable information for teachers working in this important area. Implementation of a workable instructional plan requires the cooperation of the whole faculty. *A Guide: Reading In Florida Secondary Schools* should be helpful, in part or in its entirety, to teachers directly and indirectly involved in a secondary-school reading program and to administrators and supervisors responsible for planning, instituting, and implementing reading programs in high schools.

The Committee responsible for this guide has moved with amazing dispatch to produce a useful publication that will add substantial stimulation and support to the teaching of reading in the secondary schools of Florida. This guide is offered as one more step toward the unremitting goal of the Florida State Department of Education to provide excellence in education for every student in the State.

Floyd T. Christian

FLOYD T. CHRISTIAN
State Superintendent of Public Instruction

Acknowledgments

WHEN THE DECISION was made to develop a state-level guide to teaching reading in the secondary school, a committee of public school teachers and university professors was appointed by the State Superintendent of Public Instruction to carry out the task.

Members of the Committee, whose service to public education in Florida is increased and enhanced by their work on this Guide, were: Dr. George Spache, Head, Reading Laboratory and Clinic, University of Florida, Gainesville, Chairman; Mrs. Rhea M. Anderson, Elementary Supervisor, Orange County Public Schools, Orlando; Dr. Lois V. Arnold, Coordinator of English, Pinellas County Schools, Clearwater; Dr. Emmett A. Betts, School of Education, University of Miami, Coral Gables; Mrs. Malva Braxton, Cottondale School, Cottondale; Mrs. Margaret G. Green, Reading Consultant, Volusia County Schools, Daytona Beach; Mr. James Schiavone, Miami Beach Senior High School, Miami Beach; Mr. Stanley Simmons, Southwest Miami Senior High School, Miami; Mrs. Carla S. Turner, Sarasota Junior High School, Sarasota; Mrs. Eleanor Van Duren, Dean of Girls, Pompano Beach Junior High School, Pompano Beach.

The Committee worked in cooperation with Mr. Paul Jacobs, former Consultant in Language Arts with the State Department of Education, and with Mr. Rodney P. Smith, Jr., present Consultant in Language Arts.

It would be impossible to list individually all those who assisted in making this guide possible. Their many services are deeply appreciated.

Special recognition for encouragement and leadership goes to Dr. Fred Turner, former Director of the Division of Instructional Services, State Department of Education, and to Dr. Joseph W. Crenshaw, present Director of the Division of Instructional Services and former Assistant Director, Curriculum.

We are indebted to Mr. J. K. Chapman, Mr. R. W. Sinclair, and Mr. Howard Jay Friedman, for their valuable assistance with lay-out, illustration, printing, and distribution of the guide.

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CHAPTER 1

Statement of Rationale and Need

UNTIL RELATIVELY recent years, the teaching of reading was considered the exclusive responsibility of the elementary school. In fact, in many schools practically all instruction in reading was concentrated in the first six grades. As a result of this practice, a great many pupils entered secondary education with a minimum of reading ability and hardly any skill in handling reading tasks of an advanced nature. The situation created was, educationally speaking, an almost impossible one. Without further training in reading skills, many junior and senior high school pupils could not even begin the study of the normal content of a secondary education.

A number of other school conditions have focused attention on the reading abilities of secondary pupils. Our secondary classrooms are becoming more crowded each year because of the increase in school enrollments without a proportionate increase in the number of qualified teachers. Approximately one-fifth of our population moves each year from one home to another. In a typical year, this means that twelve million or almost one out of every three children are faced with the problem of readjustment to a new school program.[1] The range of reading achievement in almost any sizable secondary classroom is as much as eight grades. Many of these pupils read far below their probable capacities as determined by their intelligence and cultural background. Typical of the conditions in other schools, a survey of a large midwestern system indicated that more than 29 percent of the eighth grade graduates read at or below norms for the sixth grade.[2] Finally, a large number of studies demonstrate the significance of reading difficulties among secondary school drop-outs. Many of these pupils would be enabled to experience academic success and remain in school if given extra help in developing their reading skills. For all these reasons, secondary teachers and administrators have accepted the challenge of improving the reading abilities of their pupils.

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[1] *Children in a Changing World*, Golden Anniversary White House Conference on Children and Youth (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1960), p. 7.

[2] William Kottmeyer, "Improving Reading Instruction in the St. Louis Schools," *Elementary School Journal*, 45 (September 1944), pp. 33-38.

The growing interest in solving secondary reading problems has been manifested in our state in a number of ways. Many schools and counties have organized workshops to provide in-service training with the help of state and university consultants. Faculty committees have been formed to lead the school's efforts to deal with reading training. In some instances, the committees have stimulated school-wide faculty participation, resulting in the adoption of new instructional approaches and materials, experiments with grouping or special classes, and other such exploratory activities.

In some counties, programs intended to produce continued development of reading ability have been established in every secondary school. In other counties, corrective programs to provide diagnostic and remedial services for retarded readers have had extensive and effective growth. In these and many other ways, the teachers and administrators of our state have shown their initiative in attacking this very difficult problem.

Purposes of This Guide

The spontaneous efforts of our schools to do something about secondary reading have been hampered by lack of guidelines and resources. Few practical textbooks on secondary reading have been available. Teachers trained in secondary reading methods are scarce. The reports of the reading experiments in other secondary schools in our country are relatively few and widely scattered among a number of educational journals. Schools are unsure of the extent to which they should properly devote their time and budgets to this responsibility. While the *Guide to English in Florida Secondary Schools*[3] emphasized the primary role of English teachers, other content field teachers wondered about their responsibilities to the reading program. Some counties attempted to evolve their own models, as the *Guide to Reading in the Secondary Schools of Volusia County*;[4] others hesitated to develop functional programs without official statements to guide them.

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[3] *A Guide: English in Florida Secondary Schools*, Bulletin 35A, State Department of Education, Tallahassee, Florida, 1962.

[4] Margaret G. Green and George D. Spache, editors, *Guide to Reading in the Secondary Schools of Volusia County* (Mrs. Margaret Green, Daytona Beach Junior College, Daytona Beach, Florida).

This guide is an attempt to resolve the doubts of those who hesitate to attack the reading problem of secondary pupils. It will not be a course of study nor a syllabus to direct the school's efforts but rather a resource tool that may be adapted to the conditions of each local situation. The Guide should function simply as a source of practical suggestions for improving the reading abilities of our pupils. The committee responsible for its preparation recommends its critical use in the words of Carl J. Freudenreich, "No other single program which the staff might plan would have as far-reaching an effect on improvement of the total teaching-learning situation in the school."[5]

Definitions and Objectives of Reading Programs

At least three types of secondary reading programs now exist in schools. These programs differ in their organization, objectives, and approaches.

Developmental Programs.[6] The primary purpose of this type of program is to develop all pupils to their maximum reading use and capacity as part of the regular work of the secondary school. The training is intended to reinforce and extend those reading skills and applications acquired in previous years and develop new skills and appreciations as they are needed to comprehend and enjoy advanced and complex reading materials. These objectives imply that all pupils will be given further instruction in the basic skills of word analysis, rate, comprehension, and vocabulary, as well as advanced training in the application of reading in the content fields, guidance in free reading, critical reading, reading-study techniques, organizational and reference skills.

In most schools, developmental reading programs are organized as a unit of some other segment of the regular English program, or as special sections of English, social studies, or the core class. A few schools center this instruction in the library, or plan for all content teachers to devote a small part of each class hour to the development of significant reading skills. Most developmental programs include the measurement of pupil progress by tests, reading inventories and study of the student's application of his skills. A few schools attempt to determine the effect of the instruction upon the quality and quantity of voluntary reading and upon achievement and drop-outs.

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[5] Carl J. Freudenreich, "How Can a Junior High School Staff Get a Schoolwide Developmental Program Underway?" pp. 37-46 in *Improving Reading in the Junior High School*, Arno Jewett, editor. U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Bulletin No. 10, 1957.

[6] See Organizing School Reading Programs, Chapter 3, for descriptions of various developmental programs.

The most successful developmental reading programs enlist the active participation of the entire staff and administration in planning, conducting, and evaluating the program. In many instances, these efforts are coordinated by a committee of teachers representing most departments of the school. As a result of these cooperative efforts, there are often the indirect results of greater skill in relating assignments, materials, and methods to pupil reading abilities, attention to the technical vocabularies of each field, and a recognition of the significance of various reading skills in learning.

The average developmental reading program is offered for a semester or two to practically all pupils, usually upon their entrance to the junior or senior high school. Training of this duration usually suffices to sharpen the basic skills and alert the pupil to the need for flexibility and self-improvement, if he is to succeed with the secondary reading tasks. Pupils with severe reading difficulties, however, require other types of programs suited to their problems.

Corrective Programs.[7] Perhaps a third to one-half of all secondary pupils are in need of further instruction than the basic developmental programs. Extremely slow rate, lack of ability to adjust rate to the material and the purpose for reading, paucity of vocabulary, difficulties in organizing and comprehending, marked lack of interest or even distaste for reading, poor perceptual or word recognition skills and weakness in word analysis are some of the more common deficiencies in skills and habits. These problems are touched upon in developmental programs but often their severity requires more intensive corrective instruction.

Corrective reading programs, then, are intended to assist a student in overcoming a marked retardation in one or two major reading skills. Pupils are usually identified by group reading tests which yield separate, reliable measures of at least rate, comprehension, and vocabulary. Then they may be assigned to special sections for the corrective activities. In some schools when the number of pupils permits, these sections are homogeneously organized to contain pupils who present similar problems. However, in many schools it has been found feasible to deal with a single, heterogeneous corrective group, if instruction is offered on a small group basis.

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[7] See Organizing School Reading Programs, Chapter 3, for descriptions of various corrective programs.

The criterion of the degree of retardation is very important in selecting pupils for corrective programs. Most schools have limited staff time, space, and resources to devote to these programs. Thus the assignment of all pupils below standard to any small degree is both impractical and wasteful. Several studies indicate that a minimum of seventh grade reading performance in the major skills is essential for success in junior high school, while ninth grade ability is probably desirable for senior high school. Therefore, these levels might be used for the initial selection of pupils for corrective work. Junior high school pupils who test below seventh grade and senior high school pupils who fall below the ninth in one or two major reading skills might constitute the first groups formed. It is assumed that these reading performances are shown to be below the levels that the pupils' capacities would permit. Other pupils with less retardation would then be accommodated in so far as facilities permitted.

Since they are keyed to the particular difficulties of the pupils, corrective programs may vary considerably in their emphasis, techniques, and duration. Some pupils will receive training in reading flexibility by practice in previewing, skimming, scanning, rapid reading, and study-type reading. At the same time, another group may emphasize vocabulary development through training in phonics, structural and contextual analysis, syllabication, use of the dictionary, and the study of word parts. A third group may be taught to outline, summarize, take notes, distinguish main ideas from details, read directions, and other organizational and reference skills which determine the student's comprehension. In some cases such as rate training, a few months of instruction may be sufficient to lay a foundation of skill which will enable the pupil to handle most secondary reading demands. In other cases, the degree of retardation or its persistence since early school years may demand longer and more individualized training than that available in the one or two semester corrective program. Such pupils may well be referred eventually to the remedial program described below. However, it is apparent that corrective reading is not necessarily predetermined in length or emphasis for all its pupils.

The diversity of the corrective program requires more flexibility of methods and materials than does the more general developmental training. The teacher will, for example, make somewhat greater use of tests and other evaluative techniques. Tests of rate of reading in different fields and under conditions with varying purposes, diagnostic tests of phonic, word recognition and word analysis skills, measures of pupil vocabulary knowledge in various fields, as well as informal evaluation exercises in study, organizational and reference skills will commonly be used. In rate training, he may make use of any of a variety of mechanical devices for quickening perception of forms and words, for increasing general rate of reading, or for providing pacing. In comprehension, vocabulary, and other skills, he may use a wide variety of manuals, workbooks, films and filmstrips, tapes, commercial kits and other aids, such as those listed in the appendices of this book. Thus by more careful initial selection of pupils, by diversifying instruction within the class, and greater use of simple evaluation procedures, the corrective program helps to overcome the major reading handicaps of most pupils.

Remedial Programs.[8] The major purpose of remedial programs is to provide the degree of individualized and intensified training needed by pupils who function more than two years below capacity in most important reading abilities. These reading disability cases often present a picture of failure dating from early school years rather than a simple problem of inadequate training for meeting current secondary school demands. The apparent causes of their difficulties are multiple and frequently include such factors as visual skills, unfavorable emotionalized attitudes toward reading or teachers or schooling in general, inadequate or inappropriate instruction in fundamental reading skills, disorganization in reading and study habits, intellectual and learning problems as short attention span and poor perception, and, finally, unhealthy or derogatory parental attitudes toward the pupil or his reading ability.

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[8] See Organizing School Reading Programs, Chapter 3, for descriptions of various remedial programs.

The diversity and crucial nature of these contributing causes make it apparent that careful study of the individual pupil's history and background is vital to treatment. As a result, remedial programs differ from other types of reading improvement efforts in the extent and depth of diagnosis, the individualization of instruction, and the complexity and variety of treatment approaches. Such programs require not only trained reading specialists but also assistance from vision, medical psychiatric, guidance and psychological professionals. Because of the expense and personnel requirements, most remedial programs or reading clinics can be sponsored only by county or large city school systems.

The estimation of success of remedial and other types of programs is frequently based upon a comparison among the pupil's initial reading performances, his status after training and his apparent capacity for reading achievement. Corrective and remedial pupils are selected for training by this comparison, evaluated in their progress in the same fashion and released from treatment when their performances appear to be commensurate with their capacities. It is apparent that the constant use of the comparison makes it a very significant factor in planning reading improvement programs. Yet there is widely varying practice among reading teachers and experts in estimating the capacity for reading achievement. Few of these specialists agree upon the best measure of just how well a pupil can or should perform in reading.[9] Some assume that his reading should be equal to his mental age despite the fact that examination of the statistics for any large number of pupils will show that this equality is seldom actually present. Many pupils who succeed academically do not read at a level equal to their mental age, and many read much better than this level but could benefit from corrective assistance. The mental age derived from a well-rounded intelligence test is not an accurate predictor of reading ability, for such a test includes many intellectual abilities irrelevant to reading. Mental age and reading grade placement need not be exactly equivalent and in many cases never will be equal. The lack of language and reading experiences, the negative attitudes of the pupil, his family or community and other factors may make the expectation of equivalence in mental age and reading grade impractical. Furthermore, even if we grant that there is some basis for expecting equivalence of mental age and reading age, there is no evidence that mental age is an accurate predictor of pupil gains from corrective or remedial instruction. Thus, again mental age does not necessarily indicate the pupil's future performances.

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[9] George D. Spache, "Estimating Reading Capacity," *Evaluation of Reading*, Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 88 (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1958), pp. 15-20.

Some reading teachers use other criteria for estimating pupil capacity for reading, such as age, or an average of the chronological and mental ages. Another approach is to average chronological age, mental age, and arithmetic age. This method assumes that learning in arithmetic samples intellectual processes or capacities not present in reading. Since both reading and arithmetic are highly dependent upon the processes of reasoning and memory, the validity of this method is dubious. Still another approach is to estimate capacity by the pupil's performance on a non-verbal intelligence test such as the performance scale of the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children. Since the facets of intelligence sampled by this or other non-verbal tests are not good predictors of reading success or capacity, this comparison may be greatly inaccurate. Furthermore, the belief that a retarded reader, who tests higher in non-verbal intelligence than in verbal, necessarily has a marked need for reading improvement is indefensible. There is no evidence that all pupils will or should develop equally in both verbal and non-verbal tasks, as this belief assumes.

All of these approaches to predicting capacity are faulty, because they are based on too narrow a sampling of the fundamental factors which, even more than verbal intelligence, determine ultimate pupil reading performance—cultural background and verbal experiences. These factors are more fully reflected by a measure of auditory comprehension or the level of material that the pupil can ordinarily comprehend when listening. Several commercial tests of auditory comprehension are listed later in this book. In general, they determine the pupil's ability to answer questions on a series of graded materials and estimate his capacity for reading after appropriate training to be equal to the most difficult listening materials he can comprehend adequately. Similar informal tests based on any graded series of content books could be constructed by the teacher. Estimates of capacity for reading growth derived in this fashion realistically sample not only basic intelligence or thinking processes but also the stimulation given these by the pupil's family, the community, and the school.

It should be realized that even the measure of listening comprehension will have been influenced by the pupil's prior language experiences. This ability is amenable to training and, indeed, is improved by remedial training. But the listening test does give a clearer picture of the pupil's background in conjunction with other measures.

Efforts to evaluate pupil capacities for reading improvement which include measures of listening comprehension, socioeconomic status, school goals, pupil goals, and family goals are decidedly preferable to intelligence tests alone. These background measures counteract such faulty practices as discharging pupils from training when their reading test scores reach their grade placement or their mental ages. Some of these pupils will continue to develop beyond these levels, while others may never reach them.

CHAPTER 2

Evaluation and Testing

THERE ARE TWO contrasting approaches to the study of secondary pupils' reading abilities and needs. One of these is the common practice of simply purchasing a well-known commercial reading test and using its results for grouping, diagnosis, planning of the reading improvement program, and judging pupil gains. This is what we refer to in the title of this chapter as "testing." A second approach might be termed "evaluation," not because it excludes reading tests, but because its goals are much broader and its techniques more diverse. In this chapter, we hope to convince the reader of the inadequacy of a narrow testing approach to reading improvement efforts.

Evaluation implies that teachers will be concerned with such questions as: the relationship between any given test and the objectives of the reading training; *the estimation of pupil growth by actual samples of reading tasks,* as well as by tests; how to relate estimates of pupil capacity to training methods and their outcomes; the measurement of growth in less obvious areas, as reading interests, quality, variety and volume of reading; and reading behaviors in study-type as well as recreational materials. This approach also implies that the teacher is acutely aware of the limitations of reading tests in any of the ways in which they are commonly employed.

Selecting Reading Tests and Other Evaluation Instruments. The selection of reading tests should certainly be related to the purposes for which they are intended. Common purposes include:

1. A school survey to discover the proportion of poor readers, to compare schools or classes and to secure an overview of the apparent effectiveness of the reading program
2. Identification of the specific reading skills and content areas in which certain pupils are weak

3. Diagnosis of the reasons for deficiencies by measures of subskills or related factors

4. Measurement of improvement after training.

Although it is often not recognized, many reading tests are designed to perform only one or two of these functions and are inappropriate for some of the others.

Survey testing for purposes of crude grouping or classification of pupils, and comparison of groups or schools may be accomplished by any general reading test which samples the major reading skills of comprehension and vocabulary. Although helpful, a measure of rate is not essential for survey purposes since it is not frequently used for grouping or school comparisons. Among the tests listed at the end of this chapter which can be used for survey purposes are the *California*, the *Davis* (in grades 11-12), the *Cooperative*, the *Gates Reading Survey* (in grades 7-10), the *Kelley-Greene*, the Survey Section of the *Diagnostic Reading Test* Series, the STEP test, the *Nelson-Denny*, and the *SRA Reading Record*.

Survey testing usually is intended to identify those pupils in need of reading training. Naturally the standards used for such classification become crucial to the organization and effectiveness of the reading program. Identification of too many pupils as retarded in reading can cripple the program or even discourage its initiation, as well as waste much of the instructional time devoted to pupils who are not in great need. For these reasons, it is often practical to consider pupils as retarded only when (1) at junior high school levels, they test two or more years below the average of the group of their potential level or (2) three or more years below at senior high school levels. It is assumed that this degree of retardation is not due to lack of intelligence, a point which may be crudely determined by comparison with their performances on a non-reading intelligence test. This criterion is based on some evidence that lesser degrees of retardation are not barriers to minimal academic success at these levels. The norm used for comparison should, of course, be that established by the population of the school rather than national norm, for a pupil is retarded only when he cannot keep up with his intellectual and cultural peers or fulfill his potential, not when he fails to meet some hypothetical standard. Even with these criteria for selection of pupils for reading training, it may be necessary to delay such training for some, because of the limitations of staff time and other facilities. Reading improvement classes will need to be smaller than other groups, if they are to supply the intensive, almost individualized instruction that is essential.

In those schools, in which types of training other than remedial are possible, the survey testing may also function in pupil classification. Corrective groups may be formed to improve one or two major skills such as vocabulary or rate of comprehension, if the survey test yields separate scores in these areas. Developmental training may be offered to the average or above average pupils, as identified by the survey testing.

After groups have been tentatively formed for any of the types of reading improvement courses, diagnostic tests will be used to plan the nature of the reading program. In developmental reading it is probably sufficient to follow the general implications of the survey test in emphasizing training in the major skills. This may be accomplished by putting the greatest stress on improving the weakest skill of the group while providing continued practice in the others. In corrective groups, the pattern of training may also be based on the survey test results, except that more small group and individual plans may be needed because of the wider range of abilities and levels. In some cases, more detailed diagnostic tests like those used in remedial groups may be needed to indicate the training needed in subskills or lower level abilities.

In *remedial classes,* there is real need for careful diagnostic study of the pupils' difficulties and of the probable causes. Tests of vision such as the Keystone Telebinocular, the Bausch and Lomb Orthorater followed if necessary by a professional examination are essential. A measure of auditory discrimination, and an audiometric screening for defects in auditory acuity are also desirable. These screen out the pupils whose auditory handicaps are likely to prevent progress in the remedial training.

Following these screening tests, it is necessary to explore the pupil's development in the subskills which underlie his success in the obvious major components of reading. For example, vocabulary scores in the survey test are dependent upon the pupils' relative development of word attack skills—phonics, structural analysis, contextual analysis, visual perception, syllabication, roots and affixes—as well as the breadth of his reading experiences and his interest in learning new words.

Among the tests useful in diagnosis in this fashion at secondary levels are:

Rate—Diagnostic Reading Tests, Section III, Part I—General Rate; Part III—Rate in Social Studies; Part III—Rate in Science. Diagnostic Reading Tests, Lower Level, Booklet 2 (in grades 4-8).

Comprehension—Diagnostic Reading Tests, Section II, Comprehension—Silent and Auditory; the Iowa Tests of Educational Development, Test 5—Social Studies; Test 6—Natural Sciences; and Test 7—Literary Materials.

Vocabulary—Diagnostic Reading Tests, Section I—Vocabulary, and Section IV—Word Attack Silent; Diagnostic Reading Tests, Lower Level, Booklet 2 (in grades 4-8); the Michigan Vocabulary; the Silent Reading Diagnostic Tests; the Stanford Diagnostic Phonics Survey; the Durost—Center Word Mastery Test, the California Language Perception Tests and McCullough Word-Analysis Tests.

Early in developmental and corrective work and somewhat later in remedial groups, attention will be given to the pupils' study skills, attitudes or motivation toward academic success, as well as their actual performances in work-type reading situations. In some cases, tests of oral reading will be used to make detailed observations of the pupil's word attack skills in operation. Generally speaking, oral tests are not accurate indicators of the levels of reading materials that secondary pupils can deal with, despite teachers' dependence upon them.[1] Oral and silent reading tests measure different processes, yield different degrees of comprehension and are not directly comparable, particularly above the intermediate grades. Among those tests which may be employed in these areas are:

Study Skills—Brown-Holtzman Survey, California Study Methods Survey; Iowa Every-Pupil Tests of Basic Skills, Word-Study Skills; SRA Achievement Series, Test 1, Word Study Skills

Oral Reading—Diagnostic Reading Scales; Durrell Analysis of Reading Difficulty; Gates-McKillop Diagnostic Test; Gilmore Oral; Gray's Oral Reading; Strang Reading Diagnostic Record.

In all types of reading improvement efforts, standardized tests play a role in classification, grouping, and in identifying areas of difficulty and pupil lacks of specific skills. With this test information, it then becomes essential to explore the pupil handicaps by other measures of their performances. Careful observation of the pupils' procedures in a variety of reading and study tasks must be made to clarify and implement the test scores.

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[1] Ralph C. Preston, "The Reading Status of Children Classified by Teachers as Retarded Readers," *Elementary English*, 30 (April 1953), pp. 225-27.

Other measures necessary for complete evaluation of pupil progress include records of the volume and variety of pupil reading; graphs from a group of reading exercises showing changes in words per minute in sustained reading, percentage of comprehension, or degree of success in specific word attack skills; actual samples of work done in content field or study-type materials; samples of work in outlining, skimming, scanning, note-taking, summarizing and certain library skills. *Performances in these realistic tasks are better indicators of pupil growth in reading efficiency than any standardized test score.* It is important that pupils be aided in self-evaluation of their own growth by their performances in these life-like reading tasks. In addition, as Hitchcock and Alfred[2] have suggested, the teacher will make and record a variety of observations as part of her total evaluation. Among these are notes on the pupils' interest in reading assignments, ability to resist distraction, preparatory steps in assembling materials for study, willingness to read orally, skill in following written directions, interest in class work and desire to listen rather than read (greater among poorer readers). These observations of attitudes and working habits are more meaningful to the teacher in planning corrective steps than most available standardized test scores.

Interpreting Tests and Other Measures. In interpreting tests and other evaluation instruments, there are two major problems —relating scores to pupil capacity for improvement and the limitations inherent in formalized tests. The first of these problems was discussed briefly in the first chapter of this guide. Suffice it to say that great care must be taken in estimating pupils' capacities for improvement or in judging their progress for these points are crucial to the determination of the real effectiveness of the improvement program.[3]

While it is true that there are inherent limitations in standardized or informal tests, many of these stem from the manner in which tests are used and interpreted rather than from basic faults in the tests. Faulty interpretations are common among test administrators in

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[2] Arthur A. Hitchcock and Cleo Alfred, "Can Teachers Make Accurate Estimates of Reading Ability?" *Clearing House*, 29 (March 1955), pp. 422-24.

[3] George D. Spache, "Estimating Reading Capacity," *Evaluation of Reading*, Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 88 (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1958), pp. 15-20.

1. Estimating gains after training
2. Making comparisons between pupils or between scores from different tests
3. In over-estimating the reliability and the validity of test scores
4. In accepting titles of tests at face value.

It is common practice to employ a reading test before and after training to determine pupil gains in various skills. Such practice implies that both scores are highly accurate and stable and that any large difference between them is due to the training. Such a practice implies that the tests measure the skills emphasized in the program in material comparable to the training materials. Often, none of these assumptions are correct. All reading test scores are liable to a sizable error rather than being exact. For example, let us say that John scores 8.8 in a certain reading test. The usual interpretation is that he can read adequately in eighth grade materials. Actually his true score, as determined by the reliability of this particular test, is most likely to be somewhere between 8.5 and 9.1, which implies that he may be able to deal with some ninth grade reading areas. The test score does not reveal what types of content he can read at these levels nor his strengths in such major skills as rate, comprehension or vocabulary, unless subscores in these are provided. In many cases, the test score does not actually represent the pupil's working level for he may not be able to perform at the test level in classroom materials, for a variety of reasons. Moreover, he certainly will not read equally well in all types of materials at this level. Furthermore, the test score does not accurately reflect the instructional level for classroom reading tasks, or the levels of materials suitable for independent reading.

Continuing with the case of John, we may observe that he appears to be a poorer reader than Mary, who tests at 9.4. Since Mary's true score may be as low as 9.1, and John's as high as this, the comparison is unjustified, for there may be no real difference in their over-all performances. After training for six weeks, John retests on another form at 9.1, an apparent gain of three months. The usual interpretation that the program resulted in a more than normal gain for John is not necessarily accurate, for several reasons. The amount of gain is well within the standard error measurement for this test and may not reflect any significant change, unless there are many informal indications of progress in major reading tasks. Secondly, many pupils show a temporary, significant gain in test score in the first few months of exposure to a new program, but no further gains in subsequent training. John's gain does not prove that his improvement is permanent nor that it will continue, even if there are evidences that it is real. We have no means of determining these facts from the test score without concrete evidence in classroom reading tasks of changes in reading habits and practices.

Judgments of pupil improvement as the result of a training program must be guided not only by attention to the probable error in measurement but also to other trends in pupil change. Over any considerable period of time such as several months or a semester, there is a distinct tendency for pupil scores to shift to a point closer to the normal. Scores of very poor readers are apt to move upward while extremely high scorers tend to regress. Unless these changes are greater than the inherent probable error they are not meaningful. Bright pupils tend to show almost immediate improvement during the early part of the training, and relatively little gain thereafter. Other pupils improve more slowly during the first third of the program but accelerate in learning during later periods. These trends raise significant questions regarding the assumption that learning progresses at a regular rate or at the same rate for most pupils. The recognition of these trends demands that judgment of pupil improvement must be based on a variety of evaluations and samples of pupil work, as well as careful estimates of pupil potentials.

There are a number of other pitfalls in interpretation of test scores into which many users fall. Because a test contains a number of parts labeled as measuring a certain skill and the overall test is reasonably reliable, teachers assume that the subscores are real or valid and reliable measures. There are many tests of this type in which the subscores are based upon such brief or highly speeded performances that their validity is suspect. A realistic evaluation of comprehension in a particular content area or a literary form, or of rate of reading or vocabulary in this area cannot be made in a few minutes of testing. Tests of detailed skills as main ideas, details, conclusions, inferences, interpretation, etc., intercorrelate so highly as to indicate that they are probably measuring the same rather than different abilities. Subtest labels do not necessarily measure what they claim to, even though they may be helpful in offering some clues for the planning of the training program. These are some of the reasons we have recommended above specific diagnostic tests for each major reading skill, rather than suggesting the use of the subscores from survey tests. Most of the diagnostic tests we have listed provide adequate samples of major and minor skills, free from the effect of time pressures and doubtful labeling.

As Traxler[4] has noted, there is an inherent artificiality in reading tests. As the reading process flows by, we dip into the stream to lift out minute samples from which we then describe the entire stream. But no aspect of silent reading can be measured without interrupting the process, for at any moment the pupil is employing a variety of visual, intellectual, and reading skills and processes. Only by repeated samples of normal reading tasks, by observation of daily progress over a period of time and by evaluation of changes in pupil efficiency and variety of his uses of reading can we estimate pupil improvement and the results of our training programs.

A Selected List of Reading Tests[5]

Brown-Holtzman Survey of Study Habits and Attitudes, Psychological Corporation, 304 East 45th Street, New York 17, New York. Surveys students' attitudes toward study as well as study practices. For college freshmen. Extensive validity data offered by authors.

California Language Perception, Educational Developmental Corp., 200 California Avenue, Palo Alto, California. Offers twelve brief tests of significant subskills in visual perception, word meaning and phonology and structural elements.

California Reading Test, California Test Bureau, Del Monte Research Park, Monterey, California. Junior high test for grades seven through nine and the advanced test for grades nine through fourteen include measures of vocabulary and comprehension in several content fields.

California Study Methods Survey, California Test Bureau, Del Monte Research Park, Monterey, California. Yields separate scores in personal adjustment, scholarly motivation, mechanics of study and personal organization, as well as a total score. Offers separate norms for high school students, all four grades combined, and for college juniors, in the four parts of the test and in total score.

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[4] Arthur E. Traxler, "Values and Limitations of Standardized Reading Tests," *Evaluation of Reading*, Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 88 (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1958), pp. 111-17.

[5] All tests are intended for group administration (unless otherwise noted) by teachers.

Cooperative Reading Comprehension, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey. Two levels are available. Yields separate scores for vocabulary, speed of comprehension and level of comprehension. A difficult test in which the distinction between level and speed is dubious.

Davis Reading Test, Psychological Corporation, 304 East 45th Street, New York 17, New York. Intended for grades eleven to thirteen. Yields scores on level and speed of comprehension in very difficult material.

Diagnostic Reading Scales, California Test Bureau, Del Monte Research Park, Monterey, California. Includes measures of word recognition (up to 6th grade) phonics skills, oral reading, silent reading and auditory comprehension. For individual diagnosis of pupils reading below ninth grade.

Diagnostic Reading Tests, Committee on Diagnostic Reading Tests, Mountain Home, North Carolina. The battery of separate tests for grades seven to fourteen includes a survey test; a vocabulary test; silent and auditory comprehension test; rate of reading tests in general rate, social studies and science; oral reading; and silent word attack. The battery for elementary schools includes reading readiness tests and test booklets for grade one, grade two, and grades three and four. The higher level oral reading test is also usable in the first six grades. Survey tests for grades four to eight are also available.

Durost-Center Word Mastery Test, Harcourt, Brace and World, 757 Third Avenue, New York 16, New York. Includes measures of general vocabulary of secondary school pupils (grades 9-12) and ability to use context to obtain meanings.

Durrell Analysis of Reading Difficulty, Harcourt, Brace and World, New York. Includes measures of silent and oral reading, listening, word recognition, letter recognition, visual memory of words, beginning and ending sounds, several spelling tests and several unstandardized tests. Intended for individual diagnostic use in the first six grades.

Gates Reading Survey, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 525 W. 120th Street, New York. Includes Measures of speed and accuracy, vocabulary, and level of comprehension for grades 3 to 10.

Gilmore Oral Reading Test, Harcourt, Brace and World, New York. For observation of oral reading performances in the first eight grades. Yields grade scores in accuracy, comprehension and rate.

Gray Oral Reading Test, Bobbs-Merrill Co., Box 558, Indianapolis 6, Indiana. Oral reading passages ranging from first grade to adult levels. No quantitative measure of comprehension is offered.

Iowa Every-Pupil Tests of Basic Skills, Word-Study Skills, Houghton Mifflin, 2 Park Street, Boston 7, Massachusetts. Separate scores in map reading, use of references, index, dictionary, and alphabetization as well as total score. Elementary battery for end-of-year testing in grades three through five; advanced battery for end of grades five through nine substitutes subtest of reading graphs, charts, and tables for the alphabetization section. Each of the batteries is probably too difficult for adequate measurement of the lowest grade level for which it is offered.

Iowa Tests of Educational Development, Science Research Associates, 259 East Erie Street, Chicago 11, Illinois. Test 9, "Use of Sources of Information," samples student's knowledge of the content and uses of basic library reference tools. Yields only total score in grades nine through twelve.

Kelley-Greene Reading Comprehension Test, Harcourt, Brace and World, New York. Separate subtests in paragraph comprehension, rate, directed reading and retention of details in reading materials representing a variety of content areas. For grades nine through thirteen.

McCullough Word-Analysis Tests, Ginn and Company, Post Office Box 191, Boston, Massachusetts. Offers seven tests of phonic and word analysis skills, primarily intended for evaluation in grades 4, 5, and above.

Michigan Vocabulary Profile Test, Harcourt, Brace and World, New York. Separate measures of knowledge of word meaning in eight content fields. Norms for grades nine through twelve, college students, and various adult groups.

Nelson-Denny Reading Tests, Houghton Mifflin, 2 Park Street, Boston 7, Massachusetts. Includes tests of general vocabulary, comprehension of textbook samples, and rate. For grades 9-16.

SRA Achievement Series, Test 1, Word Study Skills, Science Research Associates, 259 East Erie Street, Chicago 11, Illinois. The intermediate battery for grades four through six includes this test which is composed of subtests of basic references (such as the table of contents, index and reference tools) and reading of graphs and tables.

SRA Reading Record, Science Research Associates, 259 East Erie Street, Chicago 11, Illinois. Offers a measure of rate, comprehension, four tests of everyday reading skills (directory, map-table-graph, advertisements, index), three tests of vocabulary for grades 6-12.

Sequential Tests for Educational Progress, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey. Separate tests for listening and reading are available in grades four through six, seven through nine, ten through twelve, thirteen through fourteen. Each samples comprehension of a wide variety of classroom materials of appropriate levels. Total score only is available.

Silent Reading Diagnostic Tests, Lyons and Carnahan, 407 East 25th Street, Chicago 16, Illinois. For grades three to six. Subtests of word recognition in isolation and in context; tendency to reversals; word analysis by recognition of common word elements, syllabication and roots; phonic skills in recognizing phonograms, beginning and ending sounds, letter sounds and in blending.

Stanford Diagnostic Phonics Survey, Consulting Psychologists Press, 577 College Avenue, Palo Alto, California. A group test of phonics skills for high school and college students.

Strang Reading Diagnostic Record for High School and College Students, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York. Includes four oral reading paragraphs and a case history booklet.

CHAPTER 3

Planning for a Reading Program

TEACHING READING, contrary to past practice, is no longer terminated at the end of the elementary school experience. Without further training in reading skills, many junior and senior high school pupils could not even begin the study of the normal content of a secondary education.[1] The causes of this situation as listed by Spache[2] follow:

1. The range of individual differences present because of our attempt to provide universal education
2. The effects of overcrowding and mass instruction
3. The influence of normal variations in rates of development among pupils
4. The impact of the mobility of the American family.

Many secondary schools have become concerned about the reading difficulties of their pupils and are attempting to find solutions. The solutions will vary with each county and within each school, but this guide will attempt to cover some of the ways in which a reading program may be set up. Each school will want to evaluate its own program, discover its needs, and set up the type of program most suitable to meet these needs.

An effective reading program for secondary schools takes into consideration all teachers of the school, administrators, librarian, and guidance staff; the needs of the pupils; and the cooperation of the parents.

A good way to start a reading program in a secondary school is to form a faculty committee composed of representatives of the various departments of the school and the administrators. The services of a trained reading teacher are helpful, but reading on the secondary level is the concern of the whole faculty with the administrator providing demonstrations and in-service training.

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[1] See Chapter 1.

[2] George D. Spache, *Toward Better Reading* (Champaign, Illinois: Garrard Publishing Company, 1963), pp. 211-212.

A good approach to reading instruction in the secondary schools is for every teacher in every department to handle the reading techniques demanded by his subject with special emphasis on the particular techniques most needed to meet the needs of the individual students in his classes. This means that each junior and senior high school teacher accepts the pupil at his present reading level and at his own rate of learning. It would be essential for teachers to have access to several texts on different reading levels and to be willing to use them.

Some schools, through their faculty committee on reading, have set up a school-wide program in which they emphasize some phase of reading in the different subjects during the same day or days. An example of this would be to decide to teach one of the study formulas, SQRRR or PQRST,[3] in the various subjects during the same day. This takes careful planning. The teachers in all departments would become familiar with the formula in advance and find ways to apply it to their own particular subject during this same period of time. The practical use of this method of study throughout the same day would make it much more meaningful to the students and each teacher would reinforce the teaching of the other teachers.

After careful planning by the faculty committee some other principles that might be taught throughout the school on particular days are: different rates of speed for different materials, finding main ideas, skimming, scanning, affixes and roots, and vocabulary.[4] In a school-wide study of affixes and roots it would be interesting to use the same ones as much as possible in all subjects showing how they pertain to this particular subject area. In vocabulary something could be done to choose some words that are used differently in the various subjects. One of the functions of this committee is to plan the list of affixes, roots, and vocabulary pertinent to the various subject areas.

If ten minutes of the period are spent on the days agreed upon to reinforce a reading skill in the various subject areas, the pupils and the teachers would become more aware of the principle involved than if it is presented only by the reading teacher.

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[3] See "Scope and Sequence Chart" on page 62.

[4] See Chapter 4.

This approach has been found to be most successful in several schools and has been reported in research.

The use of the core program where teachers work with fewer students for a longer time during the day also has implications for the teaching of reading. When the teachers have the students for two or more periods in two subject areas, such as English and social studies, many advantages from the reading point of view are apparent. The teacher comes into contact with fewer pupils during a day and is thus enabled to learn much more about their reading difficulties. This program often gives teachers more time to work with individual pupils on their particular reading problems.

Whatever plans for improving the reading ability of students are to be undertaken, discussion of the plans by a committee of faculty members and the school administration is the best first step to take.

Administrator's Role

Administrators are usually alarmed when indications show that many pupils are not reading up to their potentialities. This is especially true when the administrators are vitally concerned with the continued improvement of public education.

Newton[5] lists three ways in which the administrator should take the lead:

1. Professional Growth of Teachers

> The attitude of teachers toward a developmental program of reading can be strengthened by in-service training. This method usually awakens concern for the need of reading instruction in all courses offered by the school. This in-service training can be carried out in many ways: workshops, reading conferences, courses, case studies, parent-teacher conferences, or by the help of a reading teacher in the regular classes.
>
> Also if members of various departments serve on a faculty committee to plan reading instruction throughout the school, an awakened interest in reading problems aids the working out of suitable means to insure the continuing growth in reading skills for the students.

2. Coordination of Staff Effort

> In secondary schools teachers can be more effective in attempting to solve reading difficulties of pupils if they have the help of the school nurse, school psychologist, guidance staff, librarian, and a

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[5] J. Roy Newton, *Reading in Your School* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1960), pp. 207-210.

trained reading teacher. Teachers who are aware of the diverse reading abilities of their pupils still profit when the administrator makes each member of the teaching staff aware of his place in the total picture.

3. Public Relations

Usually informed parents are cooperative parents, but sometimes, because of insufficient information, parents judge the school unfairly. As we are all aware, the teaching of reading has been a prime target for criticism of our schools. The administrator is the one to take the lead in interpreting the school program to the parents and in considering the merits of any constructive criticism. Sometimes these criticisms may result in needed improvement.

Newton says further that "One of the most effective ways by which a principal can influence the reading climate of a school is by his selection of new teachers."[6] If teachers are hired who recognize the basic importance of reading in their subjects and are sympathetic to the idea that not all children learn at the same rate, then reading will be given a more important part in the school curriculum.

If a school decides to try a particular type of reading program, it is the administrator who has the responsibility for providing the materials needed for such a program. If special reading classes are set up for retarded readers, slow learners, or superior students with reading disabilities, these classes will need essential reading supplies. Teachers who are willing to attempt teaching with the aid of several texts on differing reading levels, should be provided with the necessary materials. Some special materials are basic requirements for certain types of reading classes.

Some schools are ready to take the necessary steps to improve the reading abilities of their pupils; others are not yet fully aware of the difficulties with which many students are faced. The administrator can evaluate how fast the school, the staff, and the community are ready to move. In a democracy our aim is to help all students to develop their full capabilities whether they are slow learners, average students, or able learners.

Role of the Secondary School Reading Teacher

According to Bracken[7] the secondary school reading teacher has four very important goals:

1. To help teachers improve the reading instruction in their classes

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[6] *Idem*, p. 215.

[7] Ruth Strang and Dorothy Kendall Bracken, *Making Better Readers* (Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1957), p. 158.

2. To work with seriously retarded readers in small groups and individually
3. To work with administrators and curriculum people in providing experiences the pupils need, especially in suggesting books and other materials that will be interesting and helpful
4. To interpret the reading program to the public and gain the citizens' support of it.

Some reading teachers teach classes of fifteen pupils in the secondary school with success. These pupils may be remedial pupils, that is pupils who are two or more grades below their reading capabilities;[8] they may be pupils who need corrective reading help in a particular phase of reading; or they may be a mixture of both. Reading teachers may also engage in developmental reading instruction. Some teachers have found that in the secondary schools it is possible to teach all grade levels of pupils in one group and pupils with many different reading abilities. This is usually more effective if the pupils have asked for this help, if they have the potential to improve, and if not too many emotionally disturbed pupils are put into any one class.

On the secondary level it is advisable, if possible, that the reading teacher have some time to devote to helping subject area teachers who request assistance in teaching the reading techniques in their particular fields and that he have some time to devote to individual testing of pupils with special reading problems.

The reading teacher can very well act as a resource person for the school as he is usually the one in the school who is most familiar with the materials available for a particular reading problem.

As a member of the faculty committee concerned with planning the reading program for the school, the reading teacher can be of great help in planning and implementing this program and acting as the liaison between the administrator and the reading program.

Role of the School Librarian

As stated in the section of this guide "Developing Reading Interests in Students in the Secondary Schools." "The librarian is a most important member of the team which develops the reading interests of secondary school students."

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[8] See Chapter 2.

In addition to the services mentioned in Section VI, the librarian can help the classroom and reading teacher by observing the pupils as they work in the library, and reporting any deficiencies to the teachers concerned. For example, a student who copies whole paragraphs from an encyclopedia needs more help in note taking and outlining.

In many schools the librarian does direct teaching. A whole class can be given a lesson by the librarian in the use of a new set of reference books or in the location of articles in publications.

The librarian is of great help to the reading teacher and to all teachers in any school system by recommending books for particular pupils and by seeing that the library contains the books that pupils need in carrying out their class assignments and for recreational reading. A good library in the secondary school contains books on many reading levels and books that meet the diversified interests of the pupils.

Role of Guidance and Student Personnel Staff

Newton lists five areas in which the guidance department functions in developing a reading program: testing, curriculum, scheduling, recordkeeping, and advisement through conferences and reporting.[9]

Testing

In administering tests to pupils, the important thing is that both teachers and the guidance department know the reasons for giving the tests selected and the use which can be made of their results. The guidance department may suggest tests which will be helpful to teachers or the teachers may make the initial suggestions. Of prime importance is the use of test results as a guide to better teaching methods. Chapter 2, Evaluation and Testing, of this reading guide lists tests and their uses regarding reading.

Curriculum

Strang says that "The counselor often finds poor reading associated with behavior problems, with failure in school subjects, and with dissatisfaction with school, leading to truancy and school leaving. As a member of curriculum and policy-making committees, the guidance person can suggest changes that will help to prevent reading problems. Guidance problems of many kinds, including the making of educational and vocational plans, often involve reading difficulties, and serious reading problems usually have social and emotional aspects. The well-qualified guidance worker should have some preparation in the field of reading improvement."[10]

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[9] J. Roy Newton, *Reading in Your School* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1960), p. 118.

Scheduling

Curriculum provisions at the secondary level will vary all the way from a single heterogeneous program to a multi-level organization of homogeneous groups. While homogeneous grouping may reduce the range of abilities within classes, such grouping does not remove the necessity of the teacher's providing for individual differences.

When there is an increased emphasis upon reading ability, a function of the guidance department is the assignment of students to special courses and remedial work. With so many secondary pupils needing additional help in reading adequately, it is important that pupils assigned for special work be those who will profit the most from this assignment. The guidance counselor has access to records and can hold individual conferences with pupils and parents which will enable him to suggest pupils for special work in the most efficient way possible.

Scheduling is a very individual matter with each school, but for best results the specific needs of each pupil should be considered as carefully as possible.

In large schools individual scheduling of all pupils will enhance the possibilities of their achieving to the maximum of their ability. Individual scheduling would permit a student to be in the top section in science and social studies, the second section in mathematics, and the third section in English, for example.

In smaller school systems, the individual classroom teacher must provide both adjusted work for the slow learner and enrichment for the more able learner. In scheduling pupils for reading instruction it is usually unsuccessful if pupils are deprived of some subject that interests them deeply in order to attend reading classes.

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[10] Ruth Strang and Dorothy Kendall Bracken, *Making Better Readers* (Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1957), p. 158.

Recordkeeping

Cumulative folders for each pupil and test scores are usually available in the guidance department. It is important that all teachers have access to information regarding the pupils whom they teach. This is particularly true of remedial pupils as many times the records contain information of great assistance to teachers trying to help these pupils.

Advisement Through Conferences and Reporting

The guidance department spends much time in conferences with students and parents. In scheduling pupils for special reading instruction it is important that both pupils and parents realize the purpose of the course.

The guidance department has an important part to play regarding any reading program. Its responsibility for student and teacher conferences, together with the services it gives in testing, test results, school marks, and cumulative records makes this department of great help to the reading teacher. In order that he may schedule pupils in keeping with the school curriculum and pupil needs the guidance counselor must be acquainted with and sympathetic toward the principles of developmental and remedial reading. Thus, the work of the guidance department can be of great help in insuring a worthwhile reading program for the school.

Role of the School Psychologist

The school psychologist is in a position to be of great help to the reading teacher and to all teachers who have pupils who do not learn easily. The school psychologist may be able to make suggestions which will give the teacher clues to the pupil-teacher interaction, psychotherapeutic principles, and pupil personality. Often group intelligence tests label pupils as slow learners when actually they are so handicapped by poor reading ability that these tests are an inexact measure of their mental ability.

Many larger school systems have the services of a school psychologist who can administer an individual test to pupils. An individual test may not only give a measure of intelligence without reference to reading ability, but may also reveal much useful information about the pupil's strengths and weaknesses, attention span, and aptitudes for learning under various conditions.

In smaller school systems special services can often be obtained by cooperation with other members of the community, such as doctors, psychologists, and other specialists who are not members of the school staff.

Because it is impossible to give individual tests to a large number of pupils, it is very important that every effort be made to refer to school psychologists and special services only pupils who have been carefully screened by the guidance department.

Role of the School Nurse

The school nurse has an important part to play in a good reading program. Bracken states that "In her home visits, she may give suggestions to parents about creating the best possible study conditions. She may also learn about parent-child relations that are interfering with the student's learning."[11] Because in many cases the school nurse is familiar with the family of the pupils, particularly the families of pupils with severe emotional problems or of a very low socio-economic background, she is often in a position to give valuable information to teachers working with these pupils on reading problems.

Many schools schedule vision and hearing tests once a year for their pupils. However, pupils entering school late in the year or who were absent for the tests often need to have tests given by the school nurse at another time. Frequently, the vision test used (the Snellen, for example) does not yield significant information regarding the pupil's reading-vision problem and further professional examination will be desirable.

The school nurse also can help by recording pertinent information on the pupils' health records. These records are often useful to teachers working with pupils who do not appear to be working up to their capacities.

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[11] *Ibid.*

Role of Parents

Parents are often very much concerned about the reading programs in the schools, realizing that for success in academic work the ability to read well is of prime importance.

Because of this concern, administrators and teachers are often asked why children do not read as well now as they did when the parents themselves were in school. Spache tells of several studies that have been made which show that pupils are not deteriorating in basic skills. "It is true that there are some differences that reflect the modern goals of the reading program. For example, today's pupils do not read as well orally nor do they excel in rote learning. But, as the current program intends, they do tend to be superior in thought questions in comprehension and breadth of reading experiences. These results with elementary and secondary pupils were confirmed in the measures of the scholastic attainments of the draftees in World War II, who were found to be much superior to the soldiers of World War I. Thus, studies based on literally millions of school children and school graduates indicate no gradual deterioration of the average pupil's skills."[12]

There are many evidences of improved reading instruction in the schools today. Teachers have taken special training in teaching reading to pupils on all levels of ability; teachers use a variety of teaching methods; and many new materials and devices for teaching reading are appearing constantly.

Parents often want to help their children with their reading, but do not know just what they can or should do. Spache says that "Parents can aid and support the reading goal by providing appropriate reading materials or by helping their children to find such materials; by encouraging wide, varied reading; by surrounding children with good books; and by providing home conditions which promote the quiet and privacy necessary for reading."[13]

Classroom teachers, reading teachers, and librarians can help parents select appropriate books for their children. There are also many good books written to help parents with this problem, some of which are listed below:

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[12] George D. Spache, *Toward Better Reading* (Champaign, Illinois: Garrard Publishing Company, 1963), p. 212.

[13] *Ibid.*, p. 213.

Fay, Leo C. *What Research Says to the Teacher: Reading in the High School.* Department of Classroom Teachers. Washington: National Education Association, 1956.

Larrick, Nancy. *A Parent's Guide to Children's Reading.* New York: Doubleday, 1964.

National Education Association, Research Division. *Comparative Achievement of Pupils Today and Yesterday.* Washington: NEA, 1952.

Smith, Nila B. *Why Do the Schools Teach Reading as They Do?* Washington: National School Public Relations Association.

Strang, Ruth. *Helping Your Child Improve His Reading.* New York: E. P. Dutton, 1962. Chapter VII.

Witty, Paul A. and Harry Bricker. *Your Child and Radio, TV, Comics, and Movies.* Chicago: Science Research Associates.

Parents can also help their children to succeed in their school work by adopting a friendly, constructive attitude toward the school and the teachers. When parents criticize the school program and the teachers, children are often belligerent toward the school program also.

In the secondary schools one of the most common ways to acquaint parents with the school's reading activities is "Back to School Night." Such a program gives teachers and administrators the opportunity to explain what is being done and to give parents a chance to ask questions. In this type of program, parents follow their child's schedule and meet all of his teachers. This gives each teacher a chance to explain what he plans to cover in his subject area, his emphasis upon reading, and what he expects of the pupils in the class. Parents are encouraged to ask questions concerning the course, but are discouraged from confining the questions to their own particular child. However, an opportunity is given for individual conferences at a later date. Such a program gives parents an excellent overview of the reading training being offered to their children and the methods of teaching being used.

In many schools PTA meetings are planned for panel discussions of school problems of most concern to the parents. Informed parents can discuss what they have learned about the reading program at the school at a meeting of the PTA. It is usually more effective to have parents—rather than teachers—commend the program. At the same meeting, the principal can comment on areas needing improvement and indicate future plans. Having lay people who may originally have had misgivings and questions concerning the reading program interpret it to an audience, can be an effective way to bring the matter to a group of other parents. "If the parent can realize that introducing new material, new techniques, and new reading skills can best be done by the teacher while he supplies the leisure reading, much will have been accomplished."[14]

Newton says "Parents need help in understanding that reading is comprehension, that children must want to read and must have uses for reading, that it goes on all the time in and outside of school, and that, like physical achievements, reading develops at different rates."[15]

Organizing School Reading Programs

The faculty committee and the administrator will consider both the immediate and the long-term improvement of reading in setting up a reading program for any given school. The needs of the particular students in their own school are, of course, their first consideration.

Before the development of the junior high school, reading instruction was usually part of the seventh and eighth grade program. With the change to departmentalization at the junior high level, many teachers have considered that reading is a subject that has already been taught and mastered by the pupils. All too often the familiar term "provision for individual differences" is only a phrase known by junior and senior high teachers rather than a principle to be followed.

A good reading program for the secondary school provides for the continuing development of reading skills, gives special help to all students in the content fields, makes provisions for differences in reading ability, and provides the services of a trained reading teacher to help with pupils needing work on a remedial or corrective basis.

Reading instruction on the secondary level can be divided into three main types with overlapping among these types.

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[14] J. Roy Newton, *Reading in Your School* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1960), p. 197.
[15] *Ibid.*, p. 203.

Developmental Reading Program

This is the first and most important phase of reading instruction in the secondary school and will achieve maximum success if it involves most of the departments of the school.

The basic provision of a developmental reading program is that each individual be taken at his present level and be helped to advance his reading skills. In other words, the developmental reading program puts into practice the consideration of individual differences among secondary pupils. There may be a spread of eight reading grade levels in a secondary classroom. A developmental program recognizes this fact and attempts to meet the needs of these pupils.

A really dynamic developmental program will not equalize these reading levels, but on the contrary will tend to make a larger spread of reading abilities. Its aim is not to bring all pupils up to a certain standard, but to enable each individual to achieve his maximum potential.

Other problems arise when a school attempts to have a really good developmental program for all pupils. Increased library facilities will be needed to provide more books on more reading levels and in all subject and interest areas. Allowing for individual differences means textbooks available on several levels with teachers willing to use them. All of this, of course, means that the teaching process for the teacher is more difficult. It is always more work to secure materials at many levels of reading than to use a single textbook with one assignment for all pupils. However, if a reading program gives added skills to the slow, the average, and the gifted reader and helps to decrease school dropouts, there is compensation for the hard work.

"The primary purpose of this type of program is to develop all pupils to their maximum reading use and capacity as part of the regular work of the secondary school. The training is intended to reinforce and extend those reading skills and applications acquired in previous years and develop new skills and appreciations as they are needed to comprehend and enjoy advanced and complex reading materials. These objectives imply that all pupils will be given further instruction in the basic skills of word analysis, rate, comprehension, and vocabulary, as well as advanced training in the application of reading in the content fields, guidance in free reading, critical reading, reading-study techniques, organization and reference skills."[16]

The objectives of such a program are: [17]

A. To strengthen and enhance in each individual the basic reading skills previously acquired

B. To develop and maintain a balance of new skills and appreciations

C. To relate reading effectively to other experiences which will lead to wholesome attitudes toward people and more effective living

D. To form a permanent reading habit based on a love of reading

E. To develop good standards of judgment in selecting and evaluating reading materials

F. To develop good techniques for meeting reading tasks in all content areas.

Even in classes that are grouped as homogeneously as possible, provision is needed for providing different reading experiences for individual members. No group is truly homogeneous as to reading skills and interests. Teaching each pupil as an individual according to his own special needs and capabilities is an ideal toward which all teachers in all subjects in the secondary schools should aspire. When such an ideal is reached the non-reading pupil will not present nearly so difficult a problem as he will when class activity is standardized on a level to which he cannot conform.

A good developmental reading program not only makes the poor reader more comfortable and able to adjust to his school work, but also provides for the advanced reading skills of the gifted. Some gifted pupils are not reading up to their potential ability. Many read at their own grade level, but have the ability to read much better than that. If the gifted are given dull books to read, books suited for the class level, and are forced to mark time while the others catch up, they become bored and lose interest in reading and classwork.

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[16] See Chapter 1.

[17] *English, Language Arts Curriculum Guide for Sarasota County, Florida*, Sarasota County CTE and Board of Public Instruction, Work Draft 4.

A good developmental reading program for any particular secondary school is best insured by a school-wide or all-faculty attack on the problem. On page 20 the advantages and duties of a reading committee in the secondary school were discussed. The school staff should define the general and specific goals of the entire program, including skills to be stressed in each content field for maximum success.

Most developmental reading programs will include instruction in improvement of rate, comprehension, and vocabulary. Further activities center around techniques of reading aloud, reading in the content areas, study techniques, and reference skills.

Time provided for a program may vary considerably. Some schools may offer a five week program, some an entire year.

Some suggested plans are the following:

Television instruction. This allows a large group to receive instruction of a uniform nature. Oral instruction should be simple and brief. The medium allows a more expanded, more creative, use of audio-sensory devices than if often possible in the normal classroom. Planning is extremely important and the studio teacher is allowed more planning time than others. Specific objectives are important. Televised instruction should be limited to 15-20 minutes with the auditorium teacher providing a follow-up on the television instruction. One negative element in television reading is the difficulty in making on the spot adjustments and the almost impossible task of provision of individualized instruction.

Vocabulary development, word analysis skills, reference skills, and certain phases of comprehension such as reading for the main idea or details and reading to follow directions appear to be well suited for the television medium.

Reading laboratory. The reading laboratory provides the opportunity for individualized learning. The reading program is open to all and pupils apply through their completion of a formal application. Some plans provide for a student spending a period or several in the program each week. He can leave his regular classroom or study hall to attend this special reading session. Some schools, experimenting with extended school days, provide classes without formal credit during an early bird period in the morning or at a time after the completion of the school day.

After a laboratory session of several months or more, pupils may return one or two times a week for the remainder of the year in supervised reading, applying and reinforcing learnings.

Desirable equipment in a laboratory includes pacers and other rate devices, booths, earphones, other listening devices, books, and many types of reading materials.

Curriculum-wide program. To begin this kind of program, a faculty must first appreciate the role of reading as a basic part of the entire curriculum. In its initiation, there can be an intensive analysis of reading problems and levels. This may take an entire school year. During the following year, an all-school reading committee may be appointed for each department and the group meets at scheduled times during the year. A summer workshop for each department representative may be scheduled for further more specific planning. As an outgrowth of this summer workshop, each department representative may compile a course of study tailored to the unique reading needs of his department.

Full time teacher-consultant. In this plan, teachers of English are relieved of formal teaching responsibility for six weeks or more as a school reading consultant teaches the class a planned unit. After the completion of the unit, the regular teacher may carry on with the reinforcement of skills introduced by the consultant.

This program depends upon a strong degree of cooperation between the language arts teacher and the reading consultant.

Mechanized projects. This kind of program depends primarily on mechanical devices such as pacers and accelerators, as well as reading films. Two or three days of the week are devoted to the machines for rate training and others are spent with word analysis, study skills, and comprehension techniques.

Reading in the Content Fields

Spache describes the approach to teaching reading in the content fields used by teachers in the high schools of Norfolk, Virginia. "Following a series of all faculty meetings, a sequence in teaching the various desired skills was agreed upon. Steps and materials were planned for the training in the different content areas. For each subsequent two-week period, every teacher in a content area gave ten minutes of each class period to emphasis upon a certain reading skill. All teachers stressed the same skill during this period. Since most pupils attended five content classes per day, they thus received the equivalent of one class period of training in reading each day.

"The major skills stressed were vocabulary, rate and comprehension, the minor skills were main ideas, details and appreciation. Each of these was emphasized in the manner described earlier for a two-week period. The cycle of six topics was repeated four times during the entire school year. Departmental and all-faculty meetings provided the opportunity for the review of effective procedures and the exchange of teacher reactions to the program. As measured by standardized tests, the results indicated significantly greater than normal growth in general reading abilities. In addition, growth in applied reading in the various fields was apparent to the staff."[18]

Bamman in discussing the teaching of reading in the content fields says that "Some teachers of the so-called academic subjects are inclined to think that only in their fields is it necessary for students to carry on an extensive reading program. Other teachers of the more technical subjects, or of subjects requiring a great deal of computation or manipulation of a mechanical nature, tend to feel that they have little or no responsibility for guiding their students' reading, since reading seems to be relatively unimportant in these technical subjects. Actually the students' reading is important to learning in all subjects in the curriculum. It is obviously crucial in the social sciences and literature; but physics, chemistry, home economics, algebra, vocational agriculture, and others require thoughtful reading too. In order to understand the principles of electricity, students must read. Reading recipes and directions on dress patterns in home economics, reading specification sheets for building a desk or table in industrial arts, and reading problems and theorems in algebra and geometry call for genuine skill in word recognition, word meanings, comprehension, and critical thinking. The students' general competency in any of these subjects is dependent on their ability to read efficiently."[19]

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[18] George D. Spache, *Toward Better Reading* (Champaign, Illinois: Garrard Publishing Company, 1963), p. 212.

[19] Henry A. Bamman, Ursula Hogan, and Charles E. Greene, *Reading Instruction in the Secondary Schools* (New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1961), p. 44.

Umans says, "One of the most difficult tasks is to help subject-matter teachers see the necessity of teaching skills directly related to the reading of the particular subject. Somehow, the feeling persists that reading is always taught 'elsewhere' and 'at another time.' "[20]

Among the foundational reading skills for success in the content areas that content teachers can and must help develop are:

1. Previewing—An organized rapid coverage of materials. In practice, it may include reading some or all of the following, before deciding how or whether to read the entire piece: title, headings and subheadings, summary and introductory statements, and graphic materials. When previewing materials assigned for study or some other purpose, the student should write down the significant questions that he thinks will be answered by the complete reading.
2. Skimming—previewing plus the reading of some of each major paragraph, such as the opening and closing sentences. Skimming in content materials is not a casual glancing over the pages, but an organized procedure for identifying most of the main points by reading as much as necessary for this purpose in each paragraph or section.
3. Scanning—involves a zigzagging through printed materials to identify specific information, without reading the entire page. It is used in reading an index, directory, dictionary, and in finding a name, date, or other specific fact embedded in a page. Scanning is not random looking but purposeful searching which demands that (1) the student knows clearly what is sought; (2) anticipates the form in which it will appear, as a number or phrase; and (3) scans rapidly expecting the fact sought to stand out from the page; and (4) verifies it by reading the sentence in which it is found.
4. Reading Graphic Materials—Content field teachers cannot assume that most pupils can read and interpret the graphic, tabular, cartographic, and other illustrative materials characteristic of a content area. Common types must be reviewed and students given direct instruction in rapid, effective reading of these aids, in isolation and in related textual material.

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[20] Shelley Umans, *New Trends in Reading Instruction* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1963), p. 7.

5. Organizing and Reporting—Study in secondary content areas demands a variety of organized skills: notetaking, summarizing, outlining, writing reports, collating library resources, and the like. Often secondary pupils have had little formal instruction in these and their performances reflect only trial and error learning. If secondary content teachers expect pupils to learn efficiently, they must instruct students in these skills, as the skills operate in the area familiar to each teacher.

6. Special Vocabularies—Each area has its own special vocabulary and collection of symbols, formulas, and concepts. Most secondary content teachers recognize this problem and make special efforts to insure pupil learning. Additional steps, such as recommending a personal card file of technical terms and formulas, emphasizing common word roots in related terms, and suggesting mnemonic devices for remembering complicated operations or groups of facts are helpful.

7. Extensive Reading—Pupils need planned introduction to the reading matter of each field, as bulletins, magazines, research reports, reference books, and popularized materials. Clubs, bulletin boards, committee work, special interest groups, and a variety of reading assignments will promote this essential experience.

8. Studying High School Subjects—Teachers who investigate students' study methods are often appalled by their findings. Studying, for many secondary pupils, is characterized by lack of plan, disorder, poor study conditions, and ineffectual methods. This situation can be improved by incorporating study hints into the daily classroom work and homework. If assignments are clearly described in terms of their purposes, the manner in which the learning will be assessed, and the effective ways in which they may be fulfilled, students will show marked improvement in academic performances. Among the significant types of directed practice often recommended is training in a systematic method of study that capitalizes on the basic reading skills described above. One such system is:

   P—Preview the material by reading title, headings, openings and closings of paragraphs, and introductory or summary paragraphs.

Q—Write down several questions which you wish to answer, or those that you think will be answered by the selection.

R—Read, keeping your questions in mind.

S—Summarize the answers you find by brief notes or an outline, as you find them while reading.

T—Test yourself on the material by attempting to answer the questions you proposed, without help from the selection or your notes.

Students will not readily adopt this system *in toto* without teacher demonstration of the values of each step. Extended classroom practice in previewing different types of materials, in formulating intelligent questions, and in summarizing notes in outline form are essential for pupil acceptance. Using the system in class to study textbooks, in doing experiments, in preparing reports, studying for tests, handling resource materials help to habituate the pupils.

Secondary teachers will note that none of the general suggestions offered above or the more specific ones mentioned later require great teacher skill or knowledge in teaching reading. All are simply practices in handling content field materials more effectively, that teachers are familiar with, used in their own school work, and now are transmitting to their students. Training in these practices need not detract from the time spent in learning content, for they are integral parts of the learning process. If, as we have suggested, these hints, suggestions, and practices are incorporated into classroom work, assignments and homework, most pupils will respond with superior learning, better grades, and greater interest in the content.

Reading in Mathematics

The general suggestions #'s 1, 3, 4, and 6 given above are particularly significant to this field. In addition, pupils will need special training in methods of problem solving and, perhaps, some guidance in study techniques appropriate to mathematics, as suggested above in #8. We do not recommend a formal series of such questions as "What is given?," "What is to be found?," etc., for the research indicates that this type of stereotyped approach to problem solving cannot be successfully superimposed on the thinking of many pupils. Even when trained extensively in these steps, most students do not adopt and use them. Furthermore, some research indicates that ability to answer most of these questions has little relationship to success in actual solutions.[21] In contrast, we recommend that pupils be trained in the following:

Steps in Problem Solving

1. Previewing the problem by a quick, complete reading to identify its general nature or type.
2. Carefully re-reading the problem, in a sequence which follows the steps needed, rather than the printed order. The essential and non-essential facts and relationships are identified in this second reading.
3. Trying to visualize or restate the problem during or after the second reading. This may involve an actual drawing or a mental review of the proposed steps to solution.
4. Beginning the computations, being certain to recheck the figures as given by reading them in the problem, in order to be sure of accuracy in copying them.

To insure pupil adoption of this organized approach, it will be necessary to practice the steps separately and collectively frequently in the classroom under the direction of the teacher. Solving problems without numbers, practicing reading and discussing problems without actual solution and demonstrating the validity of this system in direct comparison with pupils' own trial and error methods will be most appropriate.

Reading in Science

All eight of the foundational skills for content reading described above operate in the field of science. In addition, many authorities recommend training in problem solving similar to that offered in the section above on reading in mathematics.

The major reading problems that manifest themselves in reading in science are: comprehension of main ideas, concepts, and relationships, inappropriate rate, difficulties in remembering details, poor handling of directions and of problem solving, and deficiencies in vocabulary. Training in indirective and deductive reasoning, as in handling relationships of cause and effect, application of generalizations, formulation of principles, making inferences and forming conclusions, has been found very effective when textual materials, problems and experiments serve as illustrative materials. It has been shown that these reasoning abilities can be improved by direct teaching in realistic science materials, and that such training will result in improved comprehension. Other approaches to comprehension include controlling speed of reading to insure command of details and introducing the student to more systematic study and note taking practices, as those outlined above in the eighth general suggestion. Clarifying the exact purposes for assignments and the nature of the assessment to follow, plus specific hints regarding ways of doing the assignment significantly influence comprehension.

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[21] Robert L. Burch, *An Evaluation of Analytic Testing in Arithmetic Problem Solving.* Doctoral dissertation, Duke University, 1949.

Practice in problem solving and reading directions, as suggested earlier in this section, during classroom work are also effective in combatting these problems in science reading. Vocabulary deficiencies may be attacked by some of the steps outlined above, and by promoting better background by extensive reading. All the materials needed for this corrective work in science reading are available within the usual classroom equipment, provided that a reasonable range of reading levels are represented in the materials. In addition, special training devices and kits are listed in the appendix.

Reading in Social Science

All eight of the basic reading skills discussed earlier in this section function in the social sciences. The discussion above of training in reading graphic materials, organizing and reporting, extensive reading and studying high school subjects are of particular relevance and should be reviewed. In addition, special training in recognizing such relationships as cause and effect, inferences, space, and time concepts, reading critically, and problem solving is essential. Most of these skills may be improved by classroom practice in the normal variety of teaching materials. Additional help is available by some of the devices and kits listed in the Appendix.

Critical, intelligent reading is much to be desired in the student of social sciences. Unfortunately, it does not necessarily accompany good general reading ability, or increasing age, or maturity, or even intelligence. Like other subtle reading skills, it is produced only by direct and sustained training. Critical reading involves an interplay between the reader and the materials which results in understandings and reactions which may differ markedly from those intended by the author. It is important, first, for the reader to be able to comprehend precisely what is being said. But then, the reader begins to employ such evaluative techniques as: examining the sources for reliability, recency, accuracy; identifying the writer's obvious and his hidden purposes and viewpoints and assumptions; distinguishing between what is factual or opinionated. Secondly, the reader examines the author's inferences, and those he intends the reader to make, as well as those implied by his tone and choice of words or style. Finally, the reader will react to the author's use of propaganda devices to influence his thinking. Pupils will need to be trained in recognizing such artifices as: appeals to personal or social needs; appeals to prejudice; non-sequitur arguments; false dilemmas; outright lies; irony and satire; and the use of repetitive slogans or emotionally-toned language to influence the reader's emotions. Many classroom experiments show that these aspects of critical reading can be improved with ordinary classroom materials in training periods extending over at least one semester.

Classroom activities to promote critical reading may include:

1. Comparing several newspaper accounts of the same event for accuracy, omissions
2. Comparing newspaper versions with those offered by radio and television news commentators
3. Exploring several of the writings of an author (for example, Charles Dickens) to discuss his interests, viewpoints, and feelings.
4. Comparing several types of presentation on the same topic as a newspaper or magazine article, editorial, television documentary, for style, accuracy, and viewpoint.
5. Doing exercises in listing the facts and opinions offered in a selection, and discussing ways in which these may be distinguished.
6. Exploring the future outcomes if the reader were to follow the author's thinking to the ultimate outcomes.

7. Comparing the claims in advertisements for competing products, in terms of choice of words, fact vs. opinion, appeals to the reader.
8. Comparing pupil interpretations of the author's facts in provocative or emotional materials.

Reading in English

In all probability, more attention is given to reading skills in the course of the normal English program than in any other secondary field. The vocabulary of literature, composition and grammar is emphasized; skills necessary for special reading aids, as the dictionary, library, and other resources are stressed; the development of reading experiences, interests, and tastes is pursued and the forms and functions of types of literature are taught. Word study and word-attack skills such as syllabication, use of the context, and word structure are also an integral part of the English program. Literature is explored both widely and deeply for its personal, developmental dimension as well as its humanistic and social aspects.

Because of this emphasis upon reading skills and abilities, some secondary teachers and administrators are inclined to leave the teaching of all reading to the English department. As we have tried to imply in describing the reading skills demanded by various other fields, this attitude is unsound. The English department is neither trained nor equipped to direct the development in the special vocabularies and skills of other content areas. If secondary pupils are to develop the ability to deal with the materials on that level, it will only be as the result of a school-wide effort by all teachers concerned.

It is unnecessary to repeat here the suggestions of the state English guide[22] regarding approaches to the literature or reading program in secondary English. These suggestions outline the dimensions of the literature program, its organization and the role of individual reading. A developmental reading program for the promotion of the basic skills of rate, vocabulary, and comprehension, as it might operate within the English program, is also described in some detail.

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[22] *A Guide to English in Florida Secondary Schools,* Tallahassee: State Department of Education, 1962.

There is some evidence that some of the goals of the literature program are not readily achieved. Permanent reading interests and tastes are not widely established among graduates of our secondary schools, and reading plays a diminishing role in the lives of young people. These trends are evidenced in the studies of the low rank of reading among pupil interests during secondary years, the tendency toward disuse of public library facilities among high school and college graduates, and the lack of breadth of reading among the adult population.

Reading interests probably arise both because of social reinforcement or pressures and from a variety of internal drives or needs. Our literature reading programs are inclined to emphasize mainly the rewarding of students for doing the proper reading, rather than adapting the content and approach to such pupil needs as the searching for a personal philosophy or emotional independence, for reassurance of normality, and solutions to problems of family and social adjustment. As Niles and Early point out,[23] students will read if given reasons to read (or helped to identify their own reasons), time for reading, and guidance in their choices. If it is organized with flexibility and with adequate recognition and support of the individual's reasons for reading, the English literature program can make a most significant contribution to life-long habits and tastes in personal reading.

Reading in Industrial Arts and Home Economics

The general suggestions #'s 3, 4, 6, and 8 given earlier in this section are particularly relevant to these fields. Special vocabularies must be learned to help the student identify the tools, utensils, processes, common abbreviations, and symbols used in these areas. Training in scanning, in careful reading of directions and of problems is essential. Teachers of industrial arts and home economics will want to review the discussion of problem solving approaches given above in the section on reading in mathematics. The reading of a wide variety of graphic aids, illustrations, sketches, blueprints, working drawings, and the like are demanded in industrial arts. To these, homemaking adds the reading of recipes, statements and invoices, charts, graphs, and patterns as well as critical reading of many materials addressed to the consumer. All of these represent specific reading tasks peculiar to the content which must be practiced and perfected in directed classroom and homework activities. As in other content areas, teachers will need to develop a classroom library of resources and references varying widely in their levels of reading difficulty. Both of these fields require intensive and extensive reading, for which pupils will need planned training and opportunity in the classroom, laboratory, and shop.

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[23] Olive S. Niles and Margaret J. Early, "Adjusting to Individual Differences in English," *Journal of Education*, 138 (December 1955), pp. 1-68.

Reading in Business Education and Other Content Areas

The general suggestions given earlier in this section are of value for teachers of business education, art, music, and other content areas. Each field has its special vocabulary, its own types of reading materials, its unique variety of reference and resource tools, and its peculiar degree of emphasis upon such basic skills as organizing and reporting, studying content, and adapting rates to purposes. Teachers in these other areas will profit from reading the suggestions offered for the development of foundational reading skills, as well as the specific details given in certain of the related or similar content areas.

Conclusion. A developmental reading program for secondary schools is designed to provide a sequential program of instruction for all students of grades seven through twelve in all content areas of the curriculum. It recognizes that high school students need continued practice in applying already taught skills to their more difficult and complex assignments and, in addition, need instruction in high-level skills in interpretation and critical thinking.

Such a program is best planned by a committee representing the whole faculty of a school and should be evaluated frequently. This evaluation can be carried on by a team that includes the reading committee, the administrators, students, and parents.

Corrective Reading Program

"Corrective reading programs . . . are intended to assist a student in overcoming a marked retardation in one or two major reading skills."[24] The corrective program is planned to give help in reading areas in which individuals and groups have shown weakness on a reading test or in class work.

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[24] See Chapter 1.

Who should take corrective reading? "Several studies indicate that a minimum of seventh grade reading performance in the major skills is essential for success in junior high school, while ninth grade ability is probably desirable for senior high school. Therefore, these levels might be used for the initial selection of pupils for corrective work. . . . It is assumed that these reading performances are shown to be below the levels that the pupils' capacities will permit."[25]

Some schools are giving work in corrective reading, including study skills, to all seventh graders entering the junior high school and to all tenth graders entering the senior high school. Usually the seventh graders and the tenth graders are given reading tests in the fall so that reading disabilities may be detected. Often a second test is given in the spring to determine what progress has been made.

Such a course in corrective reading in the junior and senior high schools might include any or all of the following areas: Study skills, including reading in the content areas; vocabulary; outlining; dictionary usage; using different rates of speed to read different types of materials; vocabulary study; word analysis, including phonics; skimming; scanning; distinguishing main ideas; critical reading; locational skills; note taking; and guided free reading. In the senior high school corrective programs may be set up for two different groups of students: those who plan to go to work after high school and those who plan to enter college the next year. For the terminal students a corrective program would stress the types of reading skills that will be needed for success in their jobs. For the college-bound students a corrective program may include note taking from different subject areas and may emphasize the organizing of ideas from several sources in preparing term papers.

If corrective reading is given to seventh graders in the junior high school and to tenth graders in the senior high school, then special classes might be set up for students from the other grades who have still shown a deficiency in a specific reading skill. It seems advisable to include in the special corrective reading classes first those students who are working below their capacities and then to include others if there is room for them.

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[25] See Chapter 1.

Newton says that "If one of the better methods for providing instruction in corrective reading has been used in the seventh grade, and if it was designed to take every seventh grader at his own reading level, it is common administrative practice to continue instruction in eighth and ninth grades for reading-disability cases who have not yet reached their indicated capacity. The developmental reading program should provide for reading growth in all subjects for other students."[26]

This same thing would be true for eleventh and twelfth graders if the instruction is given to all tenth graders in the senior high school.

There are many plans by which a corrective program may be organized and these same plans may be used in organizing developmental reading programs in some schools.

Plans:

1. *Corrective reading, as mentioned above, in the junior high school for all seventh graders and in the senior high school for all tenth graders.*

   A corrective reading program is being given to all seventh graders at Sarasota Junior High School, Sarasota, Florida, for nine weeks during the first semester. Pupils are given a reading test and instruction is aimed at improving general reading ability and study skills.

   A corrective reading program for tenth grade pupils is being given at Ocala High School, Ocala, Florida. All pupils are given reading tests and emphasis in the course is upon fundamental skills of rate, vocabulary, and comprehension. In this program pupils are grouped homogeneously into three sections with changes made at the end of each six weeks whenever it seems advisable.

2. *Reading home room*

   Some schools have lengthened the home room period to enable the home room teacher to give reading helps to the students. The advantage of this method is that it reaches all of the students. The disadvantages are that not all teachers are interested in teaching reading skills nor consider themselves qualified for the work. Also this method requires providing materials to all home room teachers on a wide scale.

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[26] J. Roy Newton, *Reading in Your School* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1960), p. 241.

3. *Enrichment units*

In some junior high schools in Pinellas and Broward counties pupils are given instruction in reading skills on a wheel plan. In most cases this plan is at present for seventh graders, but might be expanded to take in eighth graders also if the school desired to do so. Under such a plan seventh graders might have twelve weeks of reading instruction under the supervision of a reading teacher, twelve weeks of general music, and twelve weeks of art during one class period each week.

4. *Special English period*

Some schools have placed students having reading difficulties in special sections of English. The advantage of this method is that no additional staff members are needed.

In such a program English grammar would not be stressed, but the emphasis would be on reading skills at the necessary level to meet the needs of the individual pupils.

The disadvantage of this scheduling is that when the teaching of reading skills is assigned to the English teacher, all too often teachers in other departments believe that they have no further responsibility to teach the skills needed in their own areas. The English teacher cannot teach the study-type reading necessary in all the content fields as well as the regular subject matter teacher can.

5. *Double language arts period*

Some schools schedule language arts for two periods with one period being devoted to reading and study skills. This method is preferable to attempting the job in a one period class. However, few English teachers have had the necessary preparation to teach the reading skills; and, moreover, this approach tends to identify reading-skill teaching with the English-language arts teachers alone and to imply that other subject matter teachers have no responsibility in the matter.

6. *Core program*

When a teacher has a class for two or three periods a day, it is possible to devote some of this teaching time to the reading skills. Usually the teacher covers two subjects, the English and social studies combination being a common one. If the teacher is trained in the teaching of reading skills, it is possible to teach the skills needed for good reading in literature and social studies.

Since the teacher has fewer pupils to meet during the day under this plan, it is possible to be more familiar with the reading abilities and disabilities of these pupils and to devote more time to individuals who need special help in reading.

7. *Individual work with a reading teacher*

If the personnel is available, an English teacher trained to teach reading or a reading teacher may be scheduled to give individual help to selected students. However, many secondary schools do not have the personnel to make such a plan practicable.

8. *Special reading class*

As mentioned above, some schools schedule classes of fifteen pupils to a trained reading teacher. If the pupils placed in these classes are pupils who need help in one or more phases of reading, but are not remedial cases, a great deal can be accomplished in a semester or even in a shorter period of time.

It is assumed that these pupils are ones who are not already working up to their capacities, but who need help in overcoming particular reading disabilities. For example, many excellent students read much too slowly to get their reading done in a reasonable amount of time. Much can be done to help them increase their speed of reading if they have normal vision and really want the help.

9. *Summer programs*

Many schools are offering helps in reading to students who wish them during the summer. Much can be accomplished in a summer program if the teacher is well trained, the students elect the course, and the reading problems are of a corrective nature.

Newton[27] lists six considerations to be decided before setting up a summer reading program:

a. How is the program to be financed?

b. Are trained teachers (including the school's reading specialist) available?

c. Can the program be coordinated with existing work in reading?

d. Are materials fresh and new to children without stealing from those to be used later?

e. Will the necessary cumulative records be available?

f. Can the numbers involved be kept small enough to permit effective instruction?

He believes that the better types of summer courses offered by the schools have the following characteristics. "They are limited in enrollment, often admitting students on the recommendations of previous teachers. When the numbers are kept small and the instruction is provided by competent reading teachers having access to school records, much can be accomplished. Sometimes boys and girls report only at stated hours and are dismissed when the instruction period is over. This organization of the summer reading program resembles the clinic or reading laboratory for work in reading."[28]

Viox[29] describes the setting up of a summer program for a junior high school in Kenmore, New York. In this case the pupils were carefully screened to be sure that those chosen were those who could profit most from the six weeks' program.

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[27] *Ibid.*, p. 244.

[28] *Ibid.*, p. 242.

[29] Ruth G. Viox, "Setting Up a Junior High School Summer Reading Improvement Program," *The Reading Teacher*, September 1963, p. 39.

She states that the pupils chosen must:

a. Have a positive attitude toward reading

AND

b. Be willing to attend

AND

c. Be emotionally stable

AND

d. Show a spirit of cooperation and ability to work well in a group (approximately 15 pupils)

AND

e. Be free from serious health problems which would preclude successful participation in this program.

In addition, the pupil's home and family had to be willing to cooperate in providing transportation, seeing that the pupil's attendance was regular and punctual, and avoid undue pressures on the child.

In Florida, summer reading programs were started on a large scale during the summer of 1961 and have increased each year since in numbers of counties involved and in numbers of pupils attending the classes. While participation in the elementary level programs approached 28,000 in the summer of 1963, participation in secondary level programs is just beginning to show definite signs of growth.

Two kinds of reading programs are offered during the summer: remedial and enrichment or developmental programs. In the summer of 1963 the numbers of junior and senior high school pupils participating in the programs were as follows:

	REMEDIAL PROGRAMS	ENRICHMENT PROGRAMS
Junior High School Pupils	1,751	860
Senior High School Pupils	129	653
	1,880	1,513

Eighteen counties in Florida had junior high remedial programs, and eight counties had senior high remedial programs; fourteen counties had junior high enrichment programs, and nine had senior high enrichment programs.

The state requirements for remedial classes specify that not more than 15 pupils be assigned to a class and not more than 30 pupils be assigned to any one remedial reading teacher for a daily load. There are no specific state requirements pertaining to class size and teacher load for the enrichment or developmental programs. When remedial reading instruction is offered in the summer program, participation is to be voluntary.

It is hoped that more counties will avail themselves of ASIS (Administrative and Special Instructional Services) units to provide remedial reading for secondary pupils during the summer. These units are available provided no more than 35% of a county's total allocation of ASIS units for the period beyond ten months are used for teachers of remedial reading and for teachers of academic subjects for credit. Should a county desire to use the full 35% of its summer allocation of ASIS units for remedial reading, it may do so.

Wherever possible it is advisable to provide reading help during the summer for secondary pupils as many pupils have very full schedules during the regular school year and are not able to fit work in special reading classes into their programs.

Conclusion. It is a good plan to give students entering junior high school and those entering senior high school corrective reading to improve their skills in the specific areas in which they are deficient and to reinforce study skills. If possible, the corrective reading help begun in the elementary schools should be reinstated in the junior high school rather than in the senior high school because less frustration is met when the work is started early. Also the sooner help is given the students, the more they are able to use it in their class work.

Corrective help is still essential in the senior high school because the pupils are encountering the demand for different types of reading skills in different subject matter. The senior high schools also often have transfers from other school systems where the reading programs may have been inadequate. Some pupils mature very slowly and in the senior high school are just beginning to realize their need to increase their reading skills. When students realize their needs and ask for help, often much is accomplished.

Remedial Reading Program

The Nature of Remedial Instruction in Reading. Just what constitutes remedial instruction? When is remedial instruction necessary? As has been pointed out in the rationale the major purpose of remedial reading programs is to provide a degree of individualized and intensified training needed by pupils who function more than two years below capacity in most of the important reading abilities.

In a typical junior high school class it is not unusual to find pupils whose reading ability ranges from those who are well read to the non-readers who in some instances can recognize only twenty-five to thirty words. In such cases the subject matter is too extensive and the textbooks are well beyond the pupils' comprehension. Attempts to provide instruction in the usual subject matter usually fail because of the lack of ability to read adequately.

When such remedial cases are recognized the first question is usually—What should be done for the remedial reader? Should special reading classes be formed? The answer to these questions depends upon the situation within the individual secondary school. Because of the various problems involved in remedial cases, the remedial reading program must of necessity differ from other types of reading programs. The importance of individualized instruction and the numerous approaches to working with remedial readers intensifies the complexities of the instruction. If such a program is to be instituted within the school, it will require a trained reading specialist. In some instances, school systems have worked in cooperation with college and university clinics, which have been specifically set up for handling remedial reading cases. Such action has become necessary because of the expenses involved, the need for trained specialists, and the multiplicity of factors involved in conducting a sound remedial program.

Selection of Students. It is evident then, that remedial reading instruction becomes necessary when remedial cases are identified and there is an indication that some form of instruction is needed. When a school decides that it will have a remedial program and has been able to secure the services of a trained reading specialist, the next step would be to select students for the remedial instruction. Just how can this be implemented? Since teachers are well aware of the difficulties which many of their students are facing, they are quite often in an excellent position to make various recommendations. Therefore, the teacher recommendations constitute one criterion for the selection of students for remedial instruction.

Poor scores on standardized tests would also indicate reading problems, problems which may constitute a remedial situation. Then, of course, we have the students themselves. It is not unusual for students to express their willingness to participate in such a program, particularly when they know that remedial help is available within the school. The students themselves are aware of their problems and difficulties, and quite often they seek out the help they need.

Other criteria for the selection of students for remedial instruction would include some measure of the student's ability to understand what he listens to, his socio-economic background, his goals, and his family goals.

Types of Remedial Programs. Various types of programs have been employed to assist remedial readers. One method is the extra required course. Such a course is usually set up without credit for those retarded readers who are in need of this type of training. This approach has its disadvantages. It increases the student's academic schedule. In the event that it should be offered for credit, it could take time away from another course that the student might take.

Another approach is that of part time remedial instruction as a unit in other classes. In such instances groups are formed within the class to permit emphasis upon the various kinds of reading skills wherein deficiencies are indicated. In such instances the teacher can use a multi-level approach to reading improvement. This raises the question whether or not a student should be permitted to receive remedial instruction on either a voluntary or a compulsory basis. Each approach, of course, has its advantages and disadvantages. If the program is made voluntary, it is usually spelled out in advance that once the student makes the decision to enter the program he is expected to attend regularly. This approach has the advantage of enabling the student to make his own decision relative to doing something about his particular difficulty in reading. It places the responsibility for improving reading on the student. On the other hand,

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Another approach to remedial instruction is that of the summer reading program. The summer reading program is discussed in another section of this chapter (see page 51).

Size of Remedial Reading Group. What should be the size of the remedial reading group? Small groups of up to ten students will enable the reading specialist to individualize instruction to the extent necessary to bring about the desired results. The larger type classes are more suitable for corrective training programs. The length of the total program and of each class period also needs to be considered. These decisions must be related with the total school program. Ordinarily, remedial instruction is conducted on a daily basis. The total program can last from one semester to an entire year.

Methodology. It is important to note that there are very special difficulties in teaching reading to seriously retarded readers. At the secondary level, a student's inability to read well and his continuous earlier failure may have given him a sense of extreme inadequacy. By this time such a student has developed a concept of himself as an individual who simply cannot learn how to read. In working with retarded readers at the secondary level, it is well to keep in mind the old adage, "nothing succeeds like success." In a remedial reading program the students must have the experience of success. They must be able to prove to themselves that they are capable of reading.

Another problem in the teaching of retarded readers at the secondary level is that of breaking old habits that have been formed. For instance, some students make wild guesses at words, or they may have developed other inappropriate methods of word attack. In spite of the difficulties in teaching seriously retarded readers at the secondary level, there are certain positive aspects which may not be found at the elementary level. The need for reading at the secondary level is extremely pronounced. Secondary students are preparing for future vocations in which reading plays an important part. The motivation here is high. With regard to methodology in working with remedial readers, we cannot point to one particular method. A variety of methods seems to get results. When students are sufficiently motivated, when they understand the reason for being in a remedial reading group, and when they are presented with suitable and interesting materials, they usually make adequate progress. With such students, the remedial reading teacher needs to work toward the development of the essential reading skills in both oral and silent reading. Auditory discrimination and perception are important. The students' listening skills need to be developed. Visual perception and discrimination are also important factors. Of course as the teacher works with students in improving their reading, the areas of vocabulary development and word analysis should be included.

Students need a continuum of experience from the beginning to the higher level reading skills, beginning at their particular level of development. Students need help in working with the skills involved in the study type of reading in order to experience success at school. Numerous practice materials and drills need to be introduced. Most important, the remedial reading instructor works toward helping each student to broaden his reading interests.

The best approach for this instruction would be to include it in the student's regular program without placing an extra burden on his schedule. The remedial reading instructor needs time to schedule individual conferences with the students. Once the instruction is set up students should be encouraged to take the responsibility and to put forth the initiative in working with the various practice materials and instruction which seems to have value for them.

Tests are used for both teaching and diagnostic purposes. Student interests may be employed as a springboard for motivation. Materials of appropriate difficulty should be presented to insure initial success in working with remedial students. As the students develop in their skills, the exercises should become progressively more difficult. Evaluation of progress may be made periodically to encourage each student. Remedial reading programs may be evaluated on the basis of standardized tests, student records, noted changes in the student's attitudes, interests, and motivation, an overall improvement in the student's academic work at school, and introspective reports.

Conclusion. For the pupils in the secondary schools who are two grades or more below their potential reading levels, it is essential to provide for remedial work with a reading teacher.

To avoid frustration and to help pupils with their class work, this remedial help is needed both in the junior and the senior high school.

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Check List* of Reading Practices in the Secondary School

I.

1. Is provision made for continuation of the teaching of reading skills throughout the grade levels of the secondary school?
2. Do faculty members accept responsibility for orienting themselves to the reading problems of the elementary schools?
3. Does each teacher plan for teaching the reading skills as an integral part of his subject matter?
4. Does each teacher recognize the reading problems which are involved in his subject areas?
5. Are provisions made, in each subject area, for meeting the needs of students who have a wide range of abilities in reading?
6. Are provisions made for a wide range of reading interests, in terms of both materials and instruction given?
7. Have the faculty members agreed as to the scope and sequence of skills to be emphasized at successive grade levels?

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* Taken from *Reading Instruction in the Secondary School* by Henry A. Bamman, Ursula Hogan, and Charles E. Greene. (David McKay Company, Inc., New York, 1961, pp. 36-37.

8. Are the study skills and habits pertinent to the various subject areas clearly defined and do teachers assume responsibility for helping students develop more efficient study habits?
9. Are materials, personnel, and space available for a laboratory program for the retarded readers?

II. Are materials adequate and consistent with the kinds of programs offered?
1. Is there a wide range of periodicals, books, magazines, newspapers, and pamphlets for each subject area?
2. Are materials sufficiently varied in terms of interests and reading levels of all students?
3. Are materials adequate for the recreational needs of the students?
4. Is guidance given, in each subject area, in the use of reference materials and textbooks?
5. Are materials provided for the student who wishes to practice and develop better reading skills?
6. Do trained personnel assist students in the location and use of reference materials?

III. Is there an adequate program of evaluation?
1. Are the results of standardized tests made available to all the teachers—both total and subscores?
2. Are the teachers apprised of the reading levels of their students?
3. Do the standardized tests which are used cover adequately the skills needed for reading in each of the content areas?
4. Are students apprised of the results of evaluation?
5. Are provisions made through the counseling services for diagnosing cases of extreme reading disability?
6. Do counselors provide opportunities for the students to discuss their study and reading problems?
7. Are provisions made for superior students to seek, on a voluntary basis, extension of their reading skills?

CHAPTER 4

Scope and Sequence of Reading Skills and Abilities

Development of Reading a Continuous Process

A SOUND READING program recognizes the value of continuous, systematic instruction, the utilization of pupil interests, the fulfillment of developmental needs and the relationship of experience in reading to other types of worth-while activities. In this way steady growth in reading skills is made possible and the attainment of basic human satisfaction is facilitated. At the same time the maximum growth of the individual according to his unique nature is fostered.[1] Thus, one concludes that development in and through reading is a continuous process—a lifetime task to which each period of life contributes.

Learning to read efficiently and effectively is very important in the world of today. Reading is crucial to the success of an individual both in and out of school and in every area of living. If the individual is to become an efficient and effective reader, he must have systematic and sequential reading instruction, differentiated in terms of his purposes, needs, interests, problems, and potential at all school levels and in every subject area.

Development of Reading Based on Individual's Experience and Background

Every important reading ability has its beginning in the early years of the child's reading development. Each year old reading skills are reinforced and new ones are added as the student is challenged with increasingly complex and difficult reading materials. Each step of development in reading should be based on the previous step and reinforce and enhance each skill and ability so that it becomes part of the repertory of mastered skills and abilities. Many skills become more complex and more refined and subtle as mastery of reading takes place. However, it should not be expected even at the college level or later that students will have acquired complete mastery of all reading skills. Thus, the development of reading abilities becomes a spiral process and cannot be confined to any single grade or educational level, but is dependent on the individual's experience and language development. Each teacher's task is to provide the experience and guide the individual in the use of these experiences at each educational level.

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[1] Paul Witty, *Sixtieth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education Part I*, Chicago. Distributed by the University of Chicago Press, 1961.

Vertical and Horizontal Aspects of Reading

Instructors at all educational levels should be concerned with not only the horizontal which deals with the development of the skills and abilities of reading but also the vertical aspects which deal with the growth of these skills if students are to become efficient and effective readers.

A vertical reading program provides definite responsibilities for the administrators,[2] the teacher of all subjects at all grade levels from kindergarten through college, the guidance personnel[3] and the librarian.[4] A vertical program assumes that each instructor discovers the capacity and achievement level in reading of each student, his reading weaknesses and strengths, his reading background, his interest in reading, his language development and his rate of learning. In terms of this information a program should be designed to help pupils not only to learn to read efficiently and effectively but also develop power in reading in every area that requires reading.

Special efforts should be made for those reading below their grade levels and mental capacities, as well as challenge the reading power of superior students. Content fields require special instruction to meet reading problems peculiar to each field. Ability to read well in one subject does not imply the ability to read well in others. Each field presents its own demands in special vocabulary, concepts and ways of reading for different purposes. Thus, every teacher who employs materials that demand reading should make the effort to direct his pupils in ways and means of accomplishing that reading.[5]

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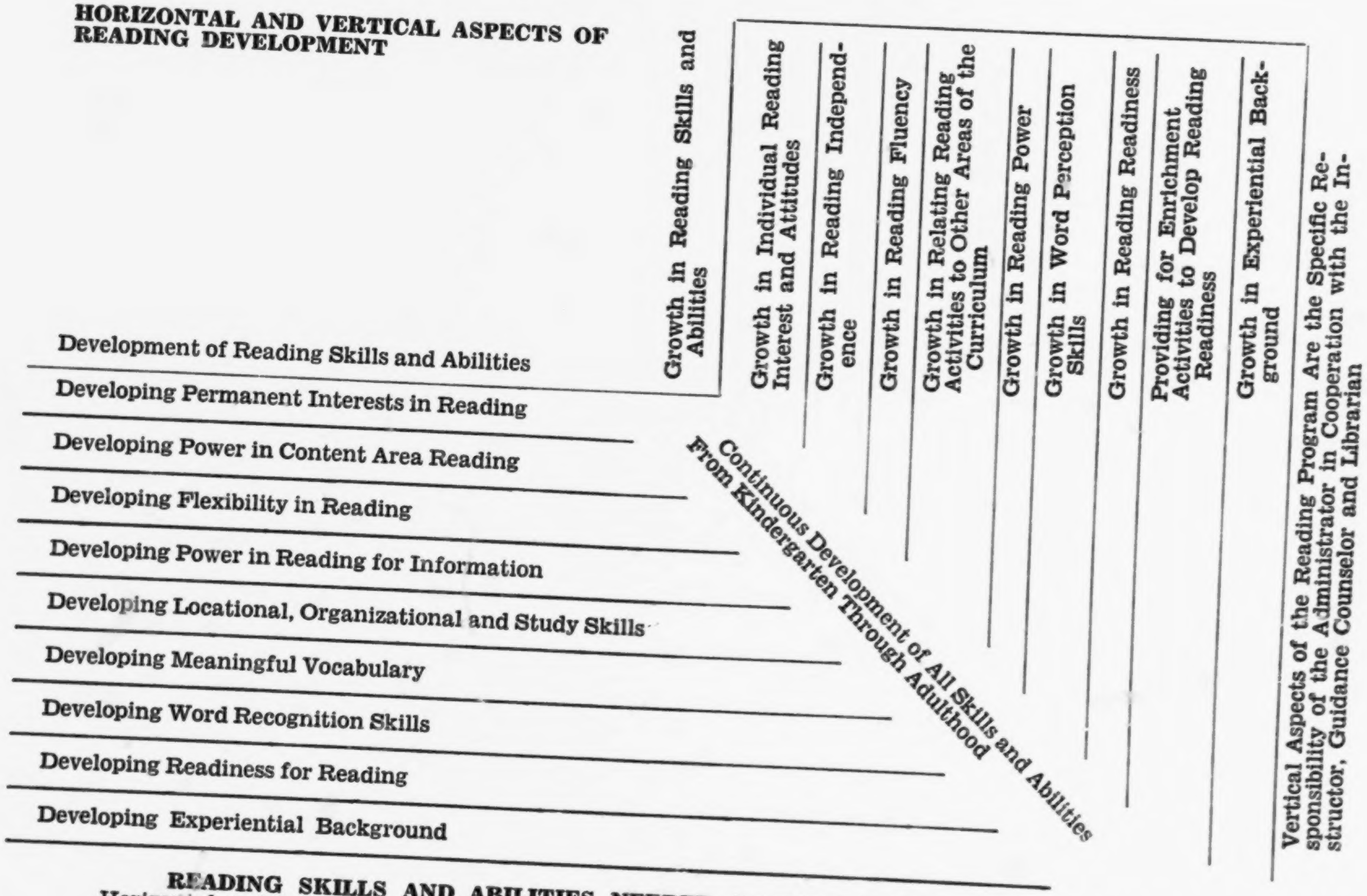
[2] Reading Guide. p. 20, *Planning for a Reading Program*

[3] Ibid.

[4] Reading Guide. p. 128, *Developing Reading Interests in Secondary Schools.*

[5] George D. Spache and Margaret G. Green, editors. *Guide to Reading in the Secondary Schools of Volusia County.*

HORIZONTAL AND VERTICAL ASPECTS OF READING DEVELOPMENT


Development of Reading Skills and Abilities
Developing Permanent Interests in Reading
Developing Power in Content Area Reading
Developing Flexibility in Reading
Developing Power in Reading for Information
Developing Locational, Organizational and Study Skills
Developing Meaningful Vocabulary
Developing Word Recognition Skills
Developing Readiness for Reading
Developing Experiential Background
Growth in Reading Skills and Abilities
Growth in Individual Reading Interest and Attitudes
Growth in Reading Independence
Growth in Reading Fluency
Growth in Relating Reading Activities to Other Areas of the Curriculum
Growth in Reading Power
Growth in Word Perception Skills
Growth in Reading Readiness
Providing for Enrichment Activities to Develop Reading Readiness
Growth in Experiential Background
Continuous Development of All Skills and Abilities From Kindergarten Through Adulthood
Vertical Aspects of the Reading Program Are the Specific Responsibility of the Administrator in Cooperation with the Instructor, Guidance Counselor and Librarian

READING SKILLS AND ABILITIES NEEDED AT EACH DEVELOPMENTAL LEVEL
Horizontal and Vertical Aspects of Reading Program Are the Specific Responsibility of the Instructor

Scope and Sequence Chart

The scope and sequence chart that follows presents the picture of the behavioral outcomes in reading development and personal development through reading which can be expected as each child moves at a pace commensurate with his ability and achievement level through the reading program from kindergarten through adult life. Following introduction of the skills and abilities through informal and incidental experience, the skills are maintained, refined and practiced at all succeeding levels. Each subsequent practice goes more broadly and deeply into the subject than did the previous practice. Each new learning must be based on the previous learning. No student, however, will show equal maturity in all skills.

It is hoped that this chart will be an aid to all persons responsible for reading development in order that they can understand the sequence and coordination of the reading program at all educational levels.

Scope and Sequence Chart of Reading Abilities

	K–3	4–6	7–9	10–12	College	Adult
I. Developing Reading Readiness A. Physical Development 1. Auditory Discrimination a. Listens with interest for enjoyment of stories, poems and rhymes; also for information and directions						
b. Associates sound and meaning with the printed symbol						
c. Hears, identifies, and responds to changes in pitch, timbre and volume in environmental sounds						
d. Listens, discriminates, and identifies likenesses and differences in the sounds of words and parts of words						
e. Listens, discriminates, and identifies the initial, ending, and medial consonant sounds; consonant blends and digraphs, long and short vowel sounds, diphthongs and digraph phonograms by name and by analogy with known sounds						
f. Listens to and responds to rhyming words						
g. Listens to and gets answers to questions; can follow the sequence of stories						
h. Listens and forms sensory images of words, sentences, descriptions, scenes and actions						
i. Listens to and understands sentence patterns and the different kinds of sentences						
j. Responds to phrasing, inflection, stress and cadence and understands the function of each						

	K-3	4-6	7-9	10-12	College	Adult
k. Continues to develop more maturity each year in the skills of listening purposefully, accurately, appreciatively, and critically						
l. Listens to and identifies stress and intonation of speech patterns to derive meanings						
m. Listens to and identifies stress and intonation of individual words						
n. Discriminates and responds to beauty and rhythm in sounds, words, phrases and sentences as conveyors of meaning						
o. Learns and recognizes the relationship between words and feelings						
p. Recognizes main ideas and subordinate ideas						
q. Recognizes essential and non-essential ideas, distinguishes facts and opinion, and point of view						
r. Listens to answer an argument						
s. Reacts to speaker's cues to main ideas; sequence of ideas						
t. Discriminates the subtle differences in the basic sounds of the language						
u. Senses emotions and moods through words and tone						
2. Visual—Motor Coordination a. Perceives and discriminates details in forms, sizes and colors of objects, pictures and words; learns to see word forms clearly						

	K–3	4–6	7–9	10–12	College	Adult
b. Has sufficient binocular visual acuity at near point to permit focusing on close work; can also shift focus to far point with speed and accuracy						
c. Has sufficient binocular coordination to permit shifting from point to point, horizontally, vertically or obliquely and maintain focus						
d. Develops a sense of directionality to left-right, up-down, front and back						
e. Develops effective left to right directionality with return sweep						
f. Learns effective visual discrimination in viewing visual aids						
g. Develops effective eye-hand coordination in cutting, drawing and writing						
h. Develops effective body coordination for games, rhymes						
i. Establishes good habits of posture for the reading and writing tasks						
j. Learns to rely more on observations and viewing to stimulate and enrich reading						
k. Develops clarity of vision at all working distances for longer periods of time						
l. Learns to read fluently and eliminate unnecessary regressions						

	K–3	4–6	7–9	10–12	College	Adult
3. Speech a. Learns to enunciate clearly and distinctly the sounds of the language						
b. Learns to use a pleasant tone of voice						
c. Learns to speak in sentences so that they can be heard and understood						
d. Learns to control volume, pitch, rate and quality of speech						
e. Engages in imitation of jingles, poems and rhymes that emphasize sounds						
f. Engages in purposeful choral reading						
g. Learns to use voice inflection to express feelings and thoughts						
h. Pronounces and enunciates correctly all words used						
i. Learns to regain control of voice and develop poise and confidence in speaking during the rapid growth of adolescence						
j. Develops ability to convey ideas and mood in oral reading through tone, enunciation, and articulation						
B. Emotional and Social Development 1. Emotional Adjustment a. Develops feelings of adequacy, security—being loved and belonging both at home and at school						
b. Learns to be free from infantile behavior						

	K–3	4–6	7–9	10–12	College	Adult
c. Sees reason for the manner in which things happen and is able to accept and adjust						
d. Develops a positive feeling of competence, personal worth and success (self-concept)						
e. Reacts to extremes e.g., fair-unfair; love-hate; fear-courage						
f. Grows in understanding of himself and learns to accept himself and to channel his feelings into safe pathways						
2. Social Adjustment a. Develops effective techniques of solving his own problems						
b. Enjoys participating in games, both in free play and supervised games						
c. Cooperates with the group in work—has developed the ability to lead or to follow						
d. Cooperates with adults and peers						
e. Grows in understanding of own personal and social needs						
f. Develops independent work habits and works happily alone or in group situations						
g. Accepts constructive criticism of his work from teachers and classmates						
h. Learns to be a resourceful person who knows how to help himself in reading and study, and also how to improve his reading performance						

	K–3	4–6	7–9	10–12	College	Adult
i. Assumes responsibilities for group activities; interested in relationship with other children						
j. Learns how to live with or without peer approval						
k. Develops the awareness of social and personal values of reading						
l. Shares in classroom problems and committee work						
m. Plans group experiences						
n. Formulates his own socially acceptable goals of living						
o. Develops an acceptance of the role of leader or follower						
p. Learns to understand his role in society						
C. Educational Development 1. Experiential Development a. Develops rich and varied experiences to assist in the development of understanding of words, fluency in language, freedom of self-expression, and stimulation of an inquiring attitude						
b. Develops a rich background of poems, nursery rhymes, stories, and pictures						
c. Continues to grow in breadth and depth of background experiences to serve as a foundation for more complex reading through excursions, pictures, television, films, and games						

	K–3	4–6	7–9	10–12	College	Adult
d. Develops ability to use television and other media of communication to aid him in building vocabulary and to supply an experiential background for reading						
e. Develops one or more intensive reading interests						
f. Makes more uses of reading in daily life outside of school						
g. Widens the scope of his reading						
h. Enjoys discussion of books, thus widening his experiential background						
i. Develops an awareness of the relationship between reading and the enrichment of his experiential background						
2. Language Development a. Learns to speak fluently and with ease in a group; to participate in discussions; to relate personal experiences in sequence and include details about experience						
b. Develops a breadth of verbal concepts in various areas, including content areas; uses longer sentences and different sentence patterns						
c. Develops skill in use of synonyms, antonyms, and homonyms						
d. Develops skill in conversation						
e. Learns to project meaning, mood, and emotion through intonation						
f. Learns to select and organize ideas						

	K-3	4-6	7-9	10-12	College	Adult
g. Develops sensitivity to syntax; and to the function of punctuation						
h. Develops a listening, speaking, reading and writing vocabulary						
i. Continues to develop the four different types of vocabulary in breadth and depth						
j. Develops facility in the clear expression of ideas—by organizing information and expressing ideas clearly in sentences						
k. Becomes aware of language—formal, informal and dialectal—appropriate to communication						
l. Develops increased facility in specialized vocabulary						
m. Continues to develop an interest in words and their use; enlarges concept of familiar words						
3. Mental Development a. Associates meaning, mental imagery, feeling, reactions, bodily attitudes with the printed word						
b. Continues to develop perceptual and symbolic abilities						
c. Continues to develop in auditory comprehension						
d. Gains ideas from pictures—ability to read pictures						
e. Increases attention span gradually						
f. Perceives and expresses relationship; selects and organizes relationships						

	K–3	4–6	7–9	10–12	College	Adult
g. Learns to select and organize ideas						
h. Develops independent work habits that lead to increased concentration						
i. Grows in ability to attend and recall; anticipating sequence of ideas and outcomes						
j. Develops curiosity about the world—past and present—and outer space						
k. Shows a desire to initiate, plan and compete intellectually						
l. Develops ability to handle abstract ideas of increasing complexity						
m. Increases interest in self improvement in order to reach his potential						
n. Sets up long range goals and works toward them						
4. Critical Thinking Development a. Learns to understand cause and effect relationship						
b. Distinguishes between fantasy and reality						
c. Learns to make inferences, generalizations and draw conclusions						
d. Develops abilities in associative thinking						

	K–3	4–6	7–9	10–12	College	Adult
e. Learns to think inductively and deductively (Creative thinking)						
f. Learns to evaluate his thinking pattern—and that thinking can be open for new evidence						
g. Develops ability to use the problem solving process in the search for learning						
h. Learns to think more logically and with increasingly difficult abstract ideas—and increasing in ability to organize, generalize and evaluate						
i. Recognizes inductive and deductive patterns of thought						
j. Learns to consider biases, preconceived ideas, and attitudes before drawing conclusions						
k. Learns what to accept, what to reject and what to investigate further						
l. Learns to detect fallacies in logic						
II. Developing Word Recognition Skills and Meaningful Vocabulary A. Builds concepts, meanings, and understandings 1. Develops an attitude of always obtaining meaning from what is heard and read						
2. Develops a background of word meanings, and understandings and the concepts they embody through activities and experiences, (both by direct and vicarious experiences)						

	K–3	4–6	7–9	10–12	College	Adult
3. Builds concepts through discussions and exchange of ideas about pictures, trips, pets, excursions, units of work, and experience						
4. Builds and reinforces the multisensory concepts and experiences (strengthening the tactile, olfactory, and gustatory vocabularies)						
5. Builds oral vocabulary through rhymes, story telling, picture books, viewing and listening						
6. Builds and enriches all types of concepts through a variety of contexts and exploration of many areas of experience which promote extension of interests and insures contact with many new words and their meanings						
7. Associates experiences and spoken language with corresponding printed symbols of the written language						
8. Learns use of picturesque words						
9. Develops ability to understand descriptive language						
10. Learns to identify the shifting meanings of words						
11. Learns effective use of synonyms, homonyms, and antonyms						
12. Builds a listening, speaking, reading and writing vocabulary through wide reading of newspapers, magazines, textbooks in various fields, literature books, radio and television programs						

	K–3	4–6	7–9	10–12	College	Adult
13. Develops depth in concepts through wide reading in specific subject areas. Acquires a listening, reading and speaking vocabulary in every subject area. (Direct teaching of vocabulary necessary—taught in every subject area)						
14. Learns to recognize connotative and denotative function of words						
15. Continues to use concrete experiences to provide accurate meaning to words and ideas						
B. Develops Sight Vocabulary 1. Uses picture clues to identify words and their meanings						
a. Uses picture clues to understand meanings of stories and poems						
b. Uses charts, graphs, and diagrams to get meanings of words						
2. Learns to use word form clues (configuration) to identify words and their meanings (Notes the similarities and differences in words—such as word length, regularity or irregularity of form and double letters)						
a. Initial sight vocabulary is usually acquired by learning to associate the total configuration of a printed symbol with its sound and its meaning						
b. Word form clues are used extensively by the mature reader—the reader becomes quite familiar with a word then configuration provides a sufficient clue for its recognition						

	K–3	4–6	7–9	10–12	College	Adult
3. Builds a word bank of words that have been identified originally by some other method but through repeated encounter have become sight words						
C. Learns to use context clues to recognize words and obtain word meanings						
1. Recognizes words from the sense of the whole selection						
2. Uses typographical aids—capital letters and quotation marks						
3. Learns to recognize and anticipate word meanings in familiar settings						
4. Recognizes that the sentence before or after gives some clues to the recognition and meaning of the word						
5. Recognizes that a synonym of the known word may be a clue to the unknown word						
6. Uses comparison and contrast in sensing the meaning and identity of the word						
7. Learns to use functions of words in sentence patterns as contextual clues						
8. Learns to identify the new word from summarizing several ideas that have been presented						
9. Combines context clues with other clues to get meaning through typographical aids: Quotation marks, italics, boldface type, and parentheses						

	K–3	4–6	7–9	10–12	College	Adult
10. Learns to correlate use of phonic analysis, structural analysis, context clues, picture clues and effective use of the dictionary to add new words to the various vocabularies						
11. Uses mood or tone of sentence, paragraph, or a selection to arrive at word meaning						
12. Uses inference, figures of speech, and idioms to obtain word meaning						
13. Learns to combine context clues with others to identify unknown word, clues e.g., transitional words, denotation and connotation; analogy, metaphor, apposition and simile						
D. Develops Phonic Analysis 1. Learn the Use of Visual and Auditory-Symbols a. Learns to use simple consonants as initial, final, and medial consonant sounds; p, b, m, w, h, d, t, n, hard g (gate), k, hard c (cake), y (yet), f (for), s (sat), s (sure)						
b. Learns to use all initial harder consonants and the common consonant digraphs 1. z (zoo), r, j (jump), g (gem), v, l, x (Ks, gs) 2. ch, sh, st, th, wh						
c Learns to use the consonant blends bl, cl, fl, gl, br, cr, dr, fr, gr, pr, tr, thr, sc, sk, sm, sn, sp, st, sw, scr, spr, squ, str, ny and sk. When two similar consonants are side by side only one is heard						
d. Learns that consonants in words may be silent (write, light, talk, back and add)						

	K–3	4–6	7–9	10–12	College	Adult
e. Learns when *c* and *h* are next to each other, they make only one sound, Ch is usually pronounced as it is in *kitchen, catch, chair*						
f. Learns that these consonants have only one sound, b, h, p, l, m, t, v, y Some of the consonants have two or more sounds. Sometimes a consonant is used to represent another letter or group of letters						
(1). *d*—down, when ed is not a separate syllable, the *d* may have the sound of *t* as in stopped or *d* as in *called*						
(2). *f*—fight, *ph* has sound of *f* as in telephone, *gh* has sound of *f* as in *rough*						
(3). *n*—when *n* comes before *g* it has a nasal sound as in *string*						
(4). *s*—consonant *s* may sound as it does in *spring* or as it does in *nose*						
g. Learns the short and long vowel sounds						
h. Learns the effect of final e (shin, shine) (hid, hide). Words having double ee usually have the long e sound						
i. Learns the long sound of the final vowel in a monosyllable (he, be) or an accented syllable (over)						
j. Learns diphthongs ow (cow) ou (out) oi (oil), oy (boy), ew (few), ey (they)						

	K–3	4–6	7–9	10–12	College	Adult
k. Learns vowel digraphs ai (pail), ea (each), oa (boat), ee (beet), oe (toe), ay (say)						
l. Learns the long and short oo sound (book, food)						
m. Learns common phonograms and begins to use initial consonant substitution with them: ack, ake, all, an, at, ay, ell, en, et, ight, ill, ing, it, old, oak, own, in, ter, and tion						
n. Learns when *y* is the final letter in a word, it usually has a vowel sound						
o. Learns when a vowel is in the middle of a one syllable word the vowel is usually short						
p. Recognizes words in which the sound of the vowel is affected by r: er, or, ir, ur						
q. Learns the first vowel is sometimes long and the second silent in the digraphs: *ai, ee, ea,* and *oa*						
r. Learns inductively (1) when the letter *c* is followed by *o* or *a* the sound of *k* is likely to be heard, (2) when *c* is followed by *e* or *i* the sound of *s* is likely to be heard						
s. Learns when the sound of *k* is used before *a, o,* or *u,* it is represented by c (catch); *ck* is used to represent the sound of *k* after a short vowel (back); *k* takes its primary sound after a long vowel (make), *k* is represented by *q* in words such as (queen)						
t. Learns that when a syllable or a word of one syllable ends in a consonant, the vowel sound is usually short, (pin, mat, fat)						

	K–3	4–6	7–9	10–12	College	Adult
u. Recognizes different pronunciations for same word						
2. Develops Understanding of Syllabication a. Develops auditory perception of syllables						
b. Develops visual and auditory perception of syllables						
c. Develops to apply skills of word analysis to words of more than one syllable						
d. Learns inductively the following generalizations about syllabication:						
(1). If there are two consonants between two vowels the word is divided between the consonants (v c: c v) (when the consonants do not form a blend as the, ch)						
(2). If there is one consonant between two vowels, the word is divided between the first vowel and the consonant (v: c v) (when the first syllable is unaccented)						
(3). If a word end in le, the consonant that just precedes the le usually begins the last syllable						
(4). When the first vowel sound is followed by th, ch, sh, these combinations are not divided and may go with the first or second syllable, i.e., (*dishes, mother*)						
(5). Every syllable has a sounded vowel						
(6). A compound word is divided between the words, i. e., (grand-mother)						

	K–3	4–6	7–9	10–12	College	Adult
3. Develops Understanding of Accentuation a. Learns to be aware of accentuation in words of more than one syllable						
b. Learns to interpret primary and secondary accent marks						
c. Learns to use primary accent on a root word when it has affixes						
d. Learns to understand that a shift in accent can affect meaning, i. e., adj., ab′sent, v., absent′						
e. Learns the influence of accent on vowel sounds: plen′t$\overset{ə}{\imath}$-ful						
f. Learns the use and value of the schwa—the symbol which is sometimes used to represent the unstressed central vowel sound of most unstressed syllables i. e., (holiday-hol′ə-dā′)						
4. Develops Understanding of the principles of accent to derive pronunciation a. The root usually is accented in words that end in a suffix, i. e., mean′ness						
b. The last syllable of action words that begin with a prefix usually is accented, i. e., as-cent′						
c. The last syllable that precedes *le* usually is accented, i. e., fizz′le						
d. In most two syllable words the first syllable is accented, i.e., (*happy, pen′cil*)						

	K-3	4-6	7-9	10-12	College	Adult
e. When a prefix is added to a root word the root word is usually accented, i. e., (*inside′*, *introduce′*)						
f. Multi-syllabic words have primary and secondary accents, i. e., a′ vi a′ tion						
g. The last syllable in a root word is accented when double consonants precede the ending, i. e., re bell′ ious						
h. The first or second syllable is usually accented in multisyllabic words, i. e., re but′ tal, pen′ ta gon						
i. There is usually one unaccented syllable between the secondary and primary accents, i. e., re′ca-pit′ u late						
j. The primary accent on a word often shifts to another syllable in its derivative, pre fer′, pref′ er able						
5. Learns effective use of the dictionary as an aid to pronunciation a. Knows the sequence of the alphabet						
b. Knows in which part of the alphabet a letter occurs						
c. Names and recognizes both the capital and small letters of the alphabet in sequence						
d. Learns to identify the section of dictionary in which the word is located						
e. Learns to apply alphabetical knowledge to find the word—alphabetic arrangement (1) by first letter, (2) by two letters, (3) by three letters						

	K–3	4–6	7–9	10–12	College	Adult
f. Learns to use guide words and their clues to locate the word						
g. Learns to identify the root word from alternate forms						
h. Learns to use the diacritical markings, accent syllabic divisions, phonetic re-spellings, to find the pronunciation and meaning of a word						
i. Learns to use effectively the "Key to Pronunciation"						
j. Recognizes the various meanings of words and develops the ability to select the most appropriate meaning—fitted to the context of the sentence						
k. Uses dictionary as reference for 1. Capitalization						
2. Correct usage						
3. Inflection						
4. Spelling						
5. Derivation						
6. Abbreviations						
7. Idioms						
l. Compilation of personal dictionary of new words and their meanings						

	K–3	4–6	7–9	10–12	College	Adult
E. Develops Structural Analysis of Words 1. Learns the Use of Compound Words a. Learns to recognize compound words when heard						
b. Learns to recognize known whole words in compound words						
c. Builds compound words with two known words						
d. Recognizes and knows the meaning of contractions						
2. Learns prefixes, suffixes and roots a. Identifies derivations formed by adding prefixes and suffixes						
b. Recognizes commonly used prefixes; a, e, un, be, al, ex, de, re, im, dis, and mis						
c. Recognizes commonly used suffixes: ing, s, ed, ly, ten, end, es, er, y, us, ud, n, self, less, est, ful, fully, selves, ish, ness, ment, kle, and able						
d. Learns principles which function both in spelling and writing regarding the above structural elements						
1. When a root word or accented last syllable of a word ends in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, the final consonant is doubled when adding a suffix beginning with a vowel, i.e., hop—hopped						
2. When a root word ends in *e*, the *e* may be dropped before adding an ending beginning with a vowel, i. e., hope—hoping						

	K–3	4–6	7–9	10–12	College	Adult
3. When a root word ends in *y* preceded by a consonant the *y* is changed to *i* before the ending (unless the ending begins with *i*), i. e., hurry-hurried-hurrying						
4. When a root word ends in *f* or *fe*, in which the *e* is silent the *f* sometimes is changed to *v* before the ending i. e., calf-calves						
e. Uses common prefixes and suffixes						
f. Knows the meaningful units of words which are stable in meaning and often stable in spelling, i. e., auto-self; circum-around; self						
g. Knows the visual units of words which vary considerably both in meanings and spelling, i. e., *scribe*, re; noun suffixes which change verbs or adjectives into nouns; or one noun into another, i. e., ance, ence, and tion; suffixes which are used to make nouns and verbs into adjectives, i. e., est, ful, fold, and wards						
h. Enriches vocabulary through history and knowledge of word origins						
i. Learns about change in words to indicate grammatical changes						
(1) Declension of nouns and pronouns, i. e., woman, women; girl, girls; who, whom						
(2) Comparison of adjectives to show case, person, number, and gender, i. e., fair, fairer, fairest						

	K–3	4–6	7–9	10–12	College	Adult
(3) Conjugation of verbs to show change of tense, person, voice, and number, i. e., grow, grew; am, are, is; lock, locks, and appoint, appointed						
(4) Addition of ed to show past tense; pronounced as separate syllable when base word ends in d or t sound, as landed, painted						
III. Developing Skills of Comprehension A. Learns to Read for Information 1. Learns to identify main ideas a. Listens to stories to identify the main ideas						
b. Reads to get the main idea of a story						
c. Reads to get the main idea of a sentence						
(1) Is able to identify both the parts of a sentence as: "Who did something?" and "What did he do?"						
(2) Can identify the part of the sentence that answers "where"						
(3) Learns to understand the sentence meaning—when it is complicated by phrases and clauses						
(4) Recognizes topic sentences						
d. Learns to compose a title for a selection						

	K–3	4–6	7–9	10–12	College	Adult
e. Learns to understand the author's central thought in the manner in which he has treated the problem of the story or the incident—recognizing the reaction and motives of the character and the mood						
f. Learns to make sentence summaries of the incident that contains the main ideas or the most inclusive idea in the paragraph						
g. Establishes relationships among main ideas in the selection						
h. Identifies logic of ideas						
i. Recognizes fallacies in logic						
2. Relates details to main ideas a. Listens to stories to identify details						
b. Locates ideas which support details such as "why," "how," and "when"						
c. Understands the development of a story by following the incidents						
d. Develops the ability to distinguish between essential and non-essential details						
e. Senses the relationship between the main point and the details as well as the interrelationships among the details, combine these into generalizations, and draw conclusions						
f. Selects details that are essential to the main idea, e. g., those that support an opinion, prove a point, and explain an idea						

	K–3	4–6	7–9	10–12	College	Adult
g. Adds the minor ideas in an outline which lists the major ideas						
h. Understands the use of comparison and contrast to clarify and develop the main idea						
i. Learns to interpret author's aids, headings, sub-headings, marginal notes, introductory statements, and final summaries						
j. Learns to recognize author's signal for details—numbers; words implying sequence, "besides," "another," "finally"						
3. Learns to read and follow directions a. Learns to observe written directions						
b. Learns to read and follow one step directions						
c. Learns to read and follow two or more step directions in order to complete a task						
d. Learns to verbalize directions in his own words and to dramatize the procedure (teacher directed)						
e. Learns to read more complex directions intensively and critically						
(1) Learns to read direction slowly, carefully methodically—noting key words such as time speed and distance						
(2) Reads to discover directions in detail						
f. Learns to restate directions in own words						

	K–3	4–6	7–9	10–12	College	Adult
(1) Learns that new or difficult words should be looked up in a dictionary						
(2) Learns to visualize what is to be done						
g. Jots down steps he is to follow—following directions one step at a time until a given task is completed						
4. Learns to set the purpose for reading a. Learns to establish a purpose for reading before beginning to read as:						
(1) To locate information						
(2) To obtain answers to questions						
(3) To grasp the organization of a book or topic						
(4) To acquire information						
(5) To find the main ideas and important details						
(6) To distinguish between relevant and irrelevant ideas						
(7) To organize information						
(8) To read critically						
(9) To evaluate what is read						
(10) To read creatively						
(11) To read for pleasure						

	K–3	4–6	7–9	10–12	College	Adult
(12) To skim and to scan						
5. Recognizes that a flexible reader should adjust reading to the nature and purpose of the task						
a. Assimilative reading: slow, concentrated						
(1) To find main idea and important details						
(2) To follow directions						
(3) To read for information and be able to recall it						
b. Locational reading: speeded (1) Skimming for the purpose of making a survey or a preview of the material						
(2) Scanning for specific items, as using the dictionary, almanac, telephone directory						
c. Recreational reading: rapid						
d. Critical reading: slow, thoughtful, and intensive						
e. Interpretative and evaluating: slow interrupted rate with frequent mental reviewing						
f. Learns that rate is influenced by: (1) The reader's mastery of mechanical skills of reading—such as number of words known as sight words						
(2) Reader's degree of motivation						

	K–3	4–6	7–9	10–12	College	Adult
(3) Reader's purpose for reading the material						
(4) Difficulty of the material						
(5) Physiological state of the reader—whether fatigued, ill, or emotionally upset						
(6) Reader's knowledge of the general matter						
(7) The length of the reading period						
(8) Mechanical factors such as size of print and length of line						
(9) Readability of the materials as determined by the style of writing, sentence structure and sentence length						
6. Develops the ability to locate information (Locational Skills) a. Looks for specific information through the use of pictures, trips, films, stories						
b. Learns to use the dictionary						
c. Learns to use an encyclopedia						
d. Learns to use the telephone directory						
e. Learns the purpose of the table of contents, the complete title of the book, the list of illustrations, and the bibliography						
f. Understands the arrangement of books on the library shelves						
g. Understands the arrangement of reference books and special collections						

	K–3	4–6	7–9	10–12	College	Adult
h. Learns to use card catalog						
i. Uses the encyclopedia						
(1) Understands the location and purpose of the index						
(2) Uses the letters and number on volumes						
(3) Uses cross references						
j. Uses Yearbooks such as the *World Almanac*						
k. Uses the *Atlas*						
l. Learns the general arrangement of the library and its rules						
(1) Library citizenship						
(2) Arrangement of books by classes						
(3) Book or author numbers						
(4) Call numbers						
(5) Arrangement on shelves						
(6) Arrangement of biography and fiction						
(7) Arrangement of reference books and special collections						
m. Learns the purpose of the parts of a book and the ability to use them to locate information						

	K-3	4-6	7-9	10-12	College	Adult
(1) Index						
(2) Table of Contents						
(3) Copyright date						
(4) Author's full name						
(5) Complete title of book						
(6) Publisher						
(7) For whom book intended						
(8) List of illustrations, maps, and tables						
(9) Bibliography						
(10) Footnotes						
n. Develops ability to use library tools and resources						
(1) Uses and understands the purpose of the card catalog						
(2) Uses Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature						
(3) Uses vertical file and picture file						
(4) Uses Almanacs and a variety of Atlases						
(5) Uses Annuals and Yearbook						
(6) Uses reference book in special fields						

	K–3	4–6	7–9	10–12	College	Adult
(7) Uses reference sources, such as *Who's Who, American Authors*, specialized dictionaries, *Roget's Thesaurus, Bartlett's Familiar Quotations, Roget's Thesaurus of English Words and Phrases* and *Walker's Rhyming Dictionary*						
(8) Develops a knowledge of different kinds of information to be found in dictionaries and encyclopedias and the ability to use these books intelligently						
o. Selects reference data appropriate to a need or purpose						
p. Learns to prepare a bibliography, to use footnotes, and to use cross references						
q. Learns how to do directed research, using the locational skills effectively and efficiently						
r. Develops the ability to read maps, charts, graphs and diagrams						
(1) Learns to read and make pictorial maps, charts, graphs and diagrams						
(2) Learns to locate directions—as north, south, east, west						
(3) Learns to read map symbols in the key and legend—scale, features, distance, altitude						
(4) Locates direction on globe, map, and sectional map						
(5) Locates cities, continents, rivers, and water areas						

	K–3	4–6	7–9	10–12	College	Adult
(6) Recognizes natural features—land, water, and surface form						
(7) Learns to interpret tables, charts, labeled drawing and cartoons						
(8) Learns to interpret graphs such as box, bar, and line						
(9) Learns to use the following map reading skills						
(a) Cultural features—cities, industries, transportation, etc.						
(b) Measurement—miles, latitude, longitude, equator, degrees						
(c) Zones—Arctic, Tropical, etc.						
(10) Learns to use circle graphs						
(11) Interprets accurately diagrams, charts, and graphs in geometry, chemistry and other subject areas						
7. Develops the ability to organize and to use information (Organizational Skills) a. Listens for sequence of events in a story						
b. Arranges pictures in sequence to tell a story or to accompany a story						
c. Reads to find the sequence of events in a paragraph or story						

	K–3	4–6	7–9	10–12	College	Adult
d. Learns to recognize and formulate simple outlines in two or three step arrangements						
e. Chooses the best sentence that summarizes a paragraph						
f. Summarizes and organizes important ideas in a selection						
g. Learns to restate the author's idea in a few sentences						
h. Learns to use proficient techniques in previewing a book to get an over-all impression of its content and structure						
i. Learns to recognize the author's organizational patterns such as enumeration, narration or time—sequence, problem solving, comparison and contrast						
j. Develops the ability to outline a selection so that he (1) Understands better the whole content						
(2) Understands and evaluates an author's logical development						
(3) Understands the importance of the retention of ideas						
(a) Understands how to organize a report from varied sources taken from outline						
k. Develops ability to make use of the author's organizational devices as: (1) Broad divisions, i. e., Section I						
(2) Section headings or sub-titles						

	K–3	4–6	7–9	10–12	College	Adult
(3) Marginal headings						
(4) Bold-face paragraph headings						
(5) Summary sections or paragraphs						
(6) Various types of print to emphasize words, phrases or longer portions						
8. Acquires efficient and effective work-study skills						
a. Develops increasingly longer periods of concentration and persistence in completing a learning task						
b. Learns to have the right tools ready and to begin work immediately						
c. Learns to work independently						
d. Learns to read with a purpose and a positive attitude with intention to find the information and remember it						
e. Develops the basic study skills (1) Learns to read directions carefully						
(2) Learns to use the locational skills effectively in studying an assignment						
(3) Learns to interpret graphic presentation by seeing facts in action and inter-action						
(4) Learns the meaning of sentences through key words						

	K–3	4–6	7–9	10–12	College	Adult
(5) Learns to identify the relationship among the words in a sentence						
(6) Learns to identify the relationship between sentences and recognize the clues used by the author to show these relationships, i.e., repetition, contrast, example, details, cause and effect and progression						
(7) Learns to identify main ideas in paragraphs and selections						
(8) Learns to identify topic sentences						
(9) Develops ability to remember information and to use aids to memory						
(10) Learns to recognize and formulate simple outlines						
(11) Learns to select and evaluate material						
(12) Learns to summarize essential points in the material						
(13) Learns to apply study formula "PQRST" (a) Preview (b) Question (c) Read carefully (d) Summarize (e) Test						

	K-3	4-6	7-9	10-12	College	Adult
(14) Learns to apply study formula SQRRR (a) Survey (b) Question (c) Read (d) Recite (e) Review						
f. Learns that the topic sentence may come anywhere in a paragraph; not all paragraphs have topic sentences						
g. Learns that purpose determines plans of development in a paragraph and these plans may be: (There are others) (1) Examples and details						
(2) Comparison and contrast						
(3) Reasons and cause and effect						
h. Develops self-motivation and interest in study						
i. Learns to attach problems of distraction						
j. Learns to underline with a purpose						
k. Learns to write precis of material read						
l. Learns to make and use a study schedule						
m. Learns *note-taking* techniques						
n. Learns to set the purpose for study and apply flexibility to the reading						

	K–3	4–6	7–9	10–12	College	Adult
o. Learns to use appropriate reading and study skills in each subject area and apply study formulas						
(1) Learns to Read and Study in *Social Studies* (Teacher directed)						
(a) Builds concepts, developing vocabulary, learning relationships involving time and cause and effect						
(b) Learns to set up questions for reading and rereading of the materials						
(c) Learns to read the maps, pictures, graphs, cartoons, charts and other illustrative materials						
(d) Learns to do extensive reading in magazines, newspapers, reference books and supplementary books to build better understanding of the unit that is being studied						
(e) Learns to collate this material by outlining, note-taking, and summarizing						
(f) Learns to apply the general skills of reading for information, critical reading and basic study skills to both the text book and the supplementary reading						
(g) Learns to apply the specific reading skills of understanding precise direction, predicting outcomes, making inferences, generalization and correct reading of maps and graphic materials in the Social Studies area						

	K–3	4–6	7–9	10–12	College	Adult
2. Learns to read and study in Science (Teacher Directed) a. Builds concepts and technical vocabulary; noting the scientific definitions, the descriptive words and phrases that narrow the scope of the thing defined						
b. Learns to apply intensive reading, previewing techniques, skimming, outlining, note-taking and reviewing to both textbook and supplementary reading (reference books, magazines, and bulletins)						
c. Learns to apply the skills of reading for information and basic study skills to the materials						
d. Learns to use both deductive and inductive reasoning and problem solving techniques						
e. Learns to remember symbols, formulas and vocabulary						
f. Grows in the ability of reading precise directions, charts, graphic materials and maps in the Science Areas						
g. Learns to use the prefixes, suffixes, meaningful units, and visual units of words pertaining to the Science field						
3. Learns to read and study in *Mathematics* (Teacher Directed) a. Builds mathematical concepts and vocabulary (1) Words whose mathematical meaning is different from general meaning: proper, rational, complex						
(2) Words whose meaning is more precise than the general meaning: similar, opposite						

	K-3	4-6	7-9	10-12	College	Adult
(3) Use of illustrative material in studying a formula—actual geometric figures with appropriate symbols						
b. Notes how sentence structure affects the understanding of the problem and its translation into mathematical language						
c. Organizes details into working ideas						
d. Learns to recognize relationships						
e. Organizes processes to find solution						
f. Learns to restate problem in his own words						
g. Uses rapid reading for a survey and general understanding of problem; intensive reading to find the details, numerical values and the relationships						
4. Learns to read and study in *Literature* (Learning how to read various literary forms—not necessarily listed in the order of presentation) a. Learns to appreciate good literature which includes these levels of understanding (1) Facts						
(2) Interpretation (Reading in depth)						
(3) Emotional response appropriate to the situation						
(4) Application to life situations and to himself						
(5) Participation through creative and active reaction						

	K–3	4–6	7–9	10–12	College	Adult
b. Learns to interpret *poetry* (1) Recognizes the type of poem and the purpose						
(2) Learns to read symbols, and figurative language						
(3) Learns to know the auditory effects of rhyme, rhythm, meter, diction						
c. Learns to read a *short story* (1) Recognizes central thought or impression of life						
(2) Distinguishes emphasis upon character, setting, action, plot, symbolism, conflict and theme						
(3) Learns to see the design of the story in terms of parallels, contrasts and conflicts						
(4) Learns to recognize that characterization appears in character's actions, speech and the speech of other characters						
(5) Learns to identify himself with a character and responding with appropriate emotional responses						
(6) Notes how the plot or mystery unravels						
d. Learns to read a *novel* (1) Create readiness by reviewing background or setting or period						
(2) Learns to apply the short story skills to the novel						
(3) Sees the general effect of the selection						

	K–3	4–6	7–9	10–12	College	Adult
e. Learns to read an *essay* (1) Identifies central thought, mood, theme of the author as well as his viewpoint						
(2) Distinguishes between opinion and fact						
(3) Notes the author's inferences and also supplies his own						
(4) Recognizes the author's organization, main ideas and supporting details						
f. Learns to read *drama* (1) Recognizes setting or background						
(2) Learns to infer character traits, feeling and motives						
(3) Learns to use visualization and imagination						
(4) Learns to attend to plot, character, theme, staging and symbolism						
(5) Uses portions for oral reading, dramatization, role playing						
g. Learns to read *biography, autobiography,* diaries, journals, letters, etc. (1) Learns to identify the author's purpose, tone or prejudice						
(2) Distinguishes between opinion and fact						
(3) Learns to attend to the author's organization and style						

	K–3	4–6	7–9	10–12	College	Adult
(4) Learns to apply the appreciations gained to his own concepts and attitudes						
h. Becomes familiar with the following literary terms such as:						
(1) Prose						
(2) Poetry						
(3) Fiction						
(4) Non-fiction						
(5) Narrative poetry						
(6) Lyric poetry						
(7) Metaphor						
(8) Simile						
(9) Irony						
(10) Alliteration						
(11) Onomatopoeia						
(12) Satire						
(13) Imagery						
(14) Allegory						
(15) Allusion						

	K–3	4–6	7–9	10–12	College	Adult
(16) Personification						
(17) Hyperbole						
i. Learns to do analytical reading and compares or contrasts others' critical views with his own						
j. Enjoys a variety of experiences with literature and reads in depth and breadth.						
IV. Developing Critical Reading						
A. Comprehends accurately what the author says						
B. Distinguishes between facts and opinions						
C. Comprehends the scope of selection and identifies the who? what? where? when? why? how?						
D. Learning that the date of publication affects the accuracy of a statement						
E. Learning to question if the author is qualified to make this statement						
F. Recognizes the author's intent and whether he achieves it						
G. Finds out not only *what* is said, but *why* it's being said						
H. Learns what to accept, what to reject, and what to investigate further						
I. Appraises soundness of author's ideas and assumption; recognizes author's mood, tone, intent, and biases						

	K–3	4–6	7–9	10–12	College	Adult
J. Recognizes hazards to clear thinking; irrelevant evidence, weighted words, false analogies, generalities based on little evidence						
K. Analyze patterns of thinking as inductive or deductive—a device to help see what the author is doing						
L. Learns not to draw hasty conclusions						
M. Recognizes propaganda techniques as 1. Glittering generalities						
2. Testimonials (the prestige appeal)						
3. Plain-folks appeal						
4. Band-wagon effect						
5. Name-calling						
6. Repetition of unsupported statements						
7. The Big Lie						
N. Learns to read for inferences, implied meanings, and interests of the author						
O. Learns to discover the devices the author uses to distort meaning as: 1. Half-truths						
2. Words or phrases quoted out of context						
3. Use of emotional language to persuade the reader to think as he does						

	K–3	4–6	7–9	10–12	College	Adult
4. Sarcasm or irony						
5. Testimonials						
P. Learns to determine if the source of information is appropriate to meet his purpose						
V. Developing Interpretive and Creative Reading Ability (Ability to read with appropriate interpretation and react creatively) A. Learns to evaluate different modes of conduct and thus deepen and extend his consciousness of the richness of life						
B. Learns to sense the character's emotions and the reasons for his emotions or actions through both listening and reading						
C. Learns to feel mildly or intensely about what he reads						
D. 1. Likes or dislikes it						
2. Agrees or disagrees with the author's ideas						
3. Finds ideas disturbing or reassuring						
4. Feels sympathy or antipathy for persons different from him						
E. Learns to evaluate the personalities of the characters in the materials; learning to interpret emotions of the characters—compares or contrasts these with his experiences						
F. Learns to pause, reflect and to interpret correctly both the author's literal meaning and his hidden meanings; his use of colorful and toneful words and also the exaggerations of color and tone to put his point across						

	K-3	4-6	7-9	10-12	College	Adult
1. Makes inferences and generalizations						
2. Makes inferences from a number of scattered clues in the story which have a shifting effect or a cumulative effect						
3. Discovers implications and draws conclusions or opinions						
4. Learns to predict outcomes						
5. Senses the effect of the choice of words (imagery, repetition as a style technique, onomatopoeia, cadence, colloquialism, idiomatic expression, sentence fragments)						
F. Learns to visualize and create scenes and ideas to get meanings from his reading						
G. Reacts to reading of material in a creative and imaginative way through individual or group activities. (dramatization, art, pantomime, bulletin boards, and puppet dramas)						
H. Learns to interpret and appreciate detail in relation to the author's building of tone and mood in stories and poems						
I. Combines what is read with concepts, information, and ideas already known						
1. Makes comparisons						
2. Sees relationships						
3. Gains an understanding of why people act as they do						
4. Explores connotative and denotative effect of words						

	K–3	4–6	7–9	10–12	College	Adult
5. Appreciates and enjoys imagery of signs and symbols, satire, and irony						
6. Rearranges author's ideas into a new pattern						
7. Locates point of greatest stress and turning point of story						
8. Responds to idiomatic expressions						
J. Learns to contrast depictions of contemporary problems in various modes of communication						
K. Develops the concept that creative reading should lead to creative writing and speaking						
1. Choral Reading						
2. Writing of radio, T V scripts, plays, poetry, puppet dramas						
3. Adding other characters to stories—writing different endings for stories or modifying last chapters						
VI. Developing Personal and Permanent Reading Interests A. Learns to enjoy hearing and reading well written varied stories and poetry, i. e., nursery rhymes, animal stories, humor, legend, fairy and folk tales, children of other lands—at his level of reading and level of interest						
B. Learns to see the wonder and beauty of the world around him through books						
C. Learns to expand his time, space horizons—geographical, historical and social—through reading						

	K-3	4-6	7-9	10-12	College	Adult
D. Learns to understand himself and others, also solve his personal problems, through reading						
E. Learns to select reading from a wider variety of sources, adventure stories, mystery stories, books on mechanics and inventions, biography. He is receiving careful guidance and encouragement to improve breadth and quality of his reading interests through persuasion enticement						
F. Develops ability to select materials pertinent to a problem or projects						
G. Grows in understandings, ideals, and ethical standards through reading						
H. Grows in development of attitudes and abilities through books						
I. Grows in understanding of a pride in the American heritage						
J. Develops the habits of using reading for help in the solution of all types of personal needs and problems						
1. Vocational						
2. Educational						
3. Cultural						
4. Recreational						
K. Selects reading for breadth and depth in areas of special interest, in areas related to understanding the world he lives in, in areas related to all school subjects						
L. Constantly widens the scope of his reading and refines his reading tastes						

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CHAPTER 5

Relationships Between Reading and the Other Language Arts

Interrelationships of the Language Arts

THE PAST FEW years have found reading frequently given the leading role in the drama of communication, with other major players seemingly relegated to upstage positions. Out of range of the spotlight perhaps, but closely related to the skill of reading are the three other facets of the language arts—listening, speaking, and writing. Even as actors in a play combine their efforts to create dramatic effectiveness, so each of the language arts is concerned with a common goal—that of communication. Each of the four must be considered along with the other members of the cast, each dependent upon and contributing to the performance of the others for an effective presentation.

Mildred Dawson emphasizes that, in addition to this common purpose of communicating ideas from person to person, the four language arts have other qualities in common. *All of them make use of the same medium of words and all of them follow similar patterns in the use of words, sentences, and structuring of ideas. Some evidence indicates that anything done to increase effectiveness in one area contributes to the other three.* As an example, Dawson points to improvement of vocabulary in reading, which tends also to benefit listening, speaking, and writing vocabularies.[1]

These interrelationships are further emphasized by Loban in his study of the language of elementary school children. He reports positive relationships among reading, writing, listening, and speaking.[2]

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[1] Mildred A. Dawson. "The Role of Reading in Relation to Other Areas of Communication," *New Frontiers in Reading*. International Reading Association Conference Proceedings, Vol. 5 (New York: Scholastic Magazines, 1960), pp. 156-160.

[2] Walter D. Loban. *The Language of Elementary School Children*. (Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1963), p. 87.

The language arts have not only the same general objective and the same elements in common, but they are closely related in their development. Since each reinforces the other in this process of development, it is important that all teachers understand the sequential relationships of the language arts. As is noted by Dawson, Zollinger, and Elwell,[3] children follow the familiar order of learning to *listen* to language. As the child develops, he next learns to *speak* and considerably later, to *read* and *write*. This sequence of listening, speaking, reading, and writing is important at all levels of the child's educational experience, even though it does not dominate all types of learning.

Often secondary teachers are unaware of the importance of this sequence in language growth. Once a teacher understands how language power develops, he can more effectively motivate the student in the impression and expression processes.

Junior and senior high school students had their first encounters with learning language when they heard the speech around them during their first years of childhood. What they heard as children and what they are hearing as adolescents influence their pronunciation and enunciation, inflections and quality of voice, word choice, and sentence patterns. These experiences of early and later childhood affect not only what the student says, but what he writes and what he brings to the printed page. The student whose language has developed in the undernourished setting of the culturally different may compare unfavorably with that student who has had wide and varied experiences in the well-nourished setting of the educated. Realizing that the student's language power is the result of all his experiences, the effective teacher searches for instructional methods which will help students improve their own communication processes.

Recognition of the student's language as a product of experiences helps the teacher understand the principle of readiness for learning any aspect of language. It follows then that (at any level of learning) the teacher finds a sequential approach the most effective. Since the *intake*, or impression, process should occur before the *output*, or expression, process, listening and reading often should precede experiences in speaking and writing. Listening, reading, and speaking would all precede the writing process, in some instances.

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[3] Mildred A. Dawson, Marian Zollinger, and Ardell Elwell, *Guiding Language Learning* (New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World, Inc., 1963), p. 27.

Similar thought patterns are basic to the two receptive arts of listening and reading. Both require that the receiver grasp the main idea, understand sequences and relationships, detect emotional tones, and determine significance and purpose. From a different point of view, both speaking and writing demand an understanding of these thought processes if the expression process is to be effective. In the classroom, group discussion, which would include both listening and speaking, is basic to helping students learn to interpret what they read. The refining process of many such activities accompanies that writing which is an outgrowth of listening, speaking, and reading. As is so often demonstrated, these sequential relationships continue their spiraling as language power grows.

One of the common denominators in the early development of the four language skills is vocabulary. As previously mentioned, those words which the student hears and understands are the ones which actually become a part of his own speech. They are the words which he reads with somewhat greater understanding and which slip into his writing. As pointed out by Dawson, Zollinger, and Elwell, unless the child develops auditory discrimination for such words as *pin* and *pen* and *been*, *ask*, and *asked*, he is not likely to use these words correctly either in his speech or writing or to recognize them easily in his reading.[4] Before and during reading, the acquisition of a rich oral vocabulary, full of meaning, is essential if the student is to be successful in verbal communication and its interpretation. These relationships are particularly in evidence in the elementary school years. However, at the secondary levels reading vocabulary may outdistance vocabularies of the other areas.

In the secondary as well as in the elementary schools, vocabulary instruction is the responsibility of every teacher. *The teacher must make certain that each student understands the vocabulary of the subject. If new terms are introduced in the biology, the social studies, or any other classroom, the teacher is under obligation to see that each student has opportunity for developing understanding of the terminology.* In addition to this understanding, students need to learn the spelling of certain words relative to specific subjects. It is also the responsibility of each subject teacher to teach the spelling of these words essential for understanding the subject matter.

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[4] Dawson, Zollinger, and Elwell, p. 28.

As emphasized by Betts, a major goal of reading instruction is teaching pupils how to think.[5] The progression from the understanding of words to the patterning of thoughts is evident throughout the sequential development of language. As the child gradually learns to organize his thought patterns into meaningful sentences, he learns to vary sentence patterns to a more complex degree. As he experiences this structuring of thought into organized patterns, he is developing the concept of communicated language. Whether listening, speaking, reading, or writing, he gains this feeling for the logical sequence of ideas and reflects this thought process in his communication. Basic to any understanding of the interrelationships of the language arts is this awareness of the thought processes inherent in language.

The language process is sequential, as is the development of each of the language arts. There is the initial stage as the small child listens and attempts to reproduce in speech what he has heard. There is the time that the school-age child learns that these sounds he has been hearing and reproducing are represented by symbols. So he learns to read. But this is not the end of the sequence, for as he continues to grow in his understandings and use of the language, this same child progresses through similar steps. At any stage of development, reading with meaning is more effective if the normal child has experienced listening and speaking and if the exceptional child, such as the deaf, has experienced related activities. Just so, writing with insight is dependent upon the appropriate sequence of all three of the other language arts. In examining each of the relationships more closely, it is important for the teacher to remember that the sequence is an ever-recurring one and that instruction cannot isolate one facet from the other language arts.

The Relationship Between Listening and Reading

Listening, the first of the learned language art skills, should be taught regularly and systematically. From the studies that have been made concerning the teaching of listening to secondary students, teachers can find excellent suggestions to supplement classroom procedures.

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[5] Emmett Albert Betts. "Updating Reading Instruction," A Presentation before the Board of Regents, Commissioner of Education, and Superintendents of the State of New York, May 25, 1962.

It has been found that the average listener retains about 25 to 50 per cent of the main ideas he hears in formal talk. Normal high school and college students retain more from reading than from listening; the opposite being true of the young child, and the poor high school or college reader.[6]

Speech and hearing vocabularies have been known to improve after listening skills have been established. Greater changes in emotional responses and attitudes have been observed through listening than through reading.[7]

Howard E. Blake suggests that the teacher be a good listener, use voice and facial expressions that promote accurate listening, have things of interest to listen to, have pupils' attention before speaking, teach students that there will be no repetition of the material, create an emotional and physical climate conducive to good listening, and make students aware of a purpose for listening.[8]

Most educators today agree that listening and speaking are of equal importance with reading and writing in a well-planned, well-organized approach to teaching the language arts. All four parts are related; they all involve language meaning. There is much overlapping among the skills of communication, yet each needs to be given special attention so that the relationship of one to the other may be recognized.

As in any learning situation, better listening and/or reading will result when there is interest in the subject and a purpose for participating. A sympathetic emotional climate is as important as having a healthful physical condition for both the individual and the situation. The experimental background, the individual differences, the attitudes, the intelligence, and the listening vocabularies of students are all factors that influence the results obtained in listening and/or reading in the classroom.[9]

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[6] George D. Spache. "Listening—Newest of the Language Arts," *Toward Better Reading*, (Garrard, 1962), pp. 181-182.

[7] *Ibid.*

[8] Howard E. Blake. "A Code for Teachers of Listening," *Elementary English*, 1962, p. 48.

[9] Hillsborough County Board of Public Instruction, "Teaching the Language Arts in the Elementary School," 1955.

At the present time studies are limited concerning the skills or the interrelationships between listening and reading.[10] Thousands of studies have been made available relative to reading, but probably less than one hundred have been made in listening. Studies involving the interrelationships of the two avenues to learning are even fewer than listening or reading.[11]

The teaching of listening, like reading, is practiced all day long. It results in the reactions that come from an alert individual who is eager to appreciate words or sounds of beauty, who can interpret emotions through intonations of the voice, who can give constructive criticism to a co-worker, or who can discern a note of insincerity in an oral message through careful analysis at the moment it occurs. Listening involves not only the hearing process but also many comprehension skills. Listening, like reading, requires thinking.

Witty and Sizemore make some observations such as, "Reading will never be replaced by listening since reading enables us to achieve certain goals that cannot be realized through listening. Reading materials provide records which can be studied, reviewed, and reexamined. . . ."

"Listening," on the other hand, say the gentlemen, "has some unique characteristics." They list the satisfaction of hearing beautiful and artistic expressions, the appreciation of various forms of literature, the discrimination of sounds, and the other values derived from listening that might not be experienced through reading. They conclude that most students should receive systematic instruction in listening.[12]

Regardless of the plan followed in teaching listening, the teacher emerges as the most important part of the program. Its success depends upon his own enthusiasm for the skills, his appreciation of the outcomes, and his ability to inspire in others the interest and practice required to become a good listener. With each lesson must come the awareness of the need for courtesy and the need for a receptive attitude. Students must have time for learning to interpret things and they must be convinced that better listening habits can be developed through good thinking and practice.

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[10] Harold G. Shane and June Grant Mulry. *Improving Language Arts Instruction Through Research* (Washington, D. C.: ASCD, NEA, 1963), p. 107.

[11] Paul A. Witty and Robert A. Sizemore. *Studies in Listening* (Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1959), p. 38.

[12] Paul A. Witty and Robert A. Sizemore. *Studies in Listening—A Postscript* (Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1959), p. 38.

Since listening and reading are the intake arts, students should be aware of their importance in their daily lives. Attitudes, ideals, religious views, family life, and national well-being are all influenced through the voices of persons, many of whom are never seen and never encountered. The voice and vocabulary of a stranger may defend or defeat us, individually or collectively. It behooves the schools, therefore, to keep apace of the times and teach youth the skills of listening and their relationships to those of reading.

The Relationship Between Speaking and Reading

Speech, the second of the language skills within the language arts, holds that position only because of the stage of growth at which it is learned—through and after listening. Speech is a vital part of our everyday living. It provides the vehicle by which we think, teach, learn, and reason. Vocabulary, upon which fluent speech depends, is acquired through listening and reading. When we express ideas in language, we do so through speech or writing, the means of creative expression.

Ralph J. Nichols makes this statement, "Words have consequences. The consequences of the spoken word are far more numerous and varied than the consequences of the written word. This is because we talk so much more than we write, listen so much more than we read."[13]

The importance of clear, concise speech is more evident as more and more oral communication becomes a part of our daily living. In the natural development of the language arts in the life of an individual, listening provides the foundation for speech. Speech in turn assists in the preparation for reading, as illustrated by the teacher who uses the pre-reading discussion of a topic about to be approached in a lesson period.

There are several elements common to all of the four language arts, but vocabulary is the one that is important to all. Before and during reading, the acquisition of a rich oral vocabulary is a necessity if the student is to become successful in verbal communication and its interpretation.

Marion Monroe has listed these common abilities needed in speaking and reading:

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[13] Ralph G. Nichols. "Listening is a Way of Learning," *Trends*, 1963-64 (Scott, Foresman), p. 3.

1. Perceiving the sounds of our language
2. Associating meaning with words
3. Producing language symbols accurately
4. Forming sensory images
5. Selecting and organizing ideas
6. Recognizing acceptable syntax
7. Perceiving relationships expressed.[14]

The more language patterns which students hear, understand, and make a part of their own experiences, the greater the likelihood that they will be able to express themselves well, both orally and in symbols. Students develop attitudes and habits from the environment in which they are placed. Dr. Ruth G. Strickland affirms that environment and experience, rather than native intelligence, determine the quality and quantity of language children acquire.[15] Intelligence may impose limits on language development but is less a determinant than the pupil's experiences. Thus, the school carries a responsibility in providing an environment that affords opportunities for student participation in speech expression. Proficiency in the use of language comes through associating it with reading and speech. The more proficient speaker is often the more proficient reader.

Students need to understand that learning to use a rich vocabulary, descriptive phrases, and acceptable syntax is not enough to make one's speech most effective. Voice quality, intonation, emphasis, rate, and resonance are all qualities of speech in which secondary students should have instruction. These are some of the factors involved when young people are permitted to express their ideas often in an original manner or style.

Growth in the abilities to develop good speech and good reading habits is promoted only by providing opportunities to *use* those contributing elements which give the student assurance in his own accomplishments and pride in the effectiveness with which he commands the language arts in all associations throughout his waking hours.

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[14] Marion Monroe, "Let's Teach All the Language Arts," *Trends*, 1963-64 (Scott, Foresman), p. 6.

[15] Ruth G. Strickland, "Interrelationships Between Language and Reading," *Volta Review*, 60 (September 1958), pp. 334-336.

At the same moment that we are encouraging skillfulness in the use of oral communication we must relate the overlapping skills, habits, and observations that appear in reading. The recognition of narrative and expository expression is essential in both speech and reading. Dawson, Zollinger, and Elwell include in the abilities to be developed: (a) clear, fluent speech, (b) a wide and varied vocabulary, (c) complete sentences, (d) accurate auditory discrimination and (e) the recognition of sequence.[16] These are some of the very items that the teacher of reading is relating to the printed material as it is presented to the student for study.

Growth in the skills of speech and reading depends upon carefully planned, continuous and sequential teaching and the frequency of opportunities for student participation with language forms and structures, through both the vocal and written form. Growth is greatest when the environment provides suitable and excellent illustrations, when visual aids reinforce word meanings, ideas, and language concepts. Growth will be spontaneous, and a desire for improvement will be promoted if the classroom is one in which the teacher and students look upon language learning with attitudes of enjoyment and exploration and examine every student's contribution, even though it may be small, with understanding and appreciation. The teacher's sensitivity to the students and their sensitivity to one another must permeate and prevail throughout the group.

Speech and reading each require the development of many of the same abilities, since each deals with the richness of meaning, the precise use of, and the fluent use of words. Each subject demands a kind but firm atmosphere in which to be presented, nourished, absorbed, and practiced. When the conditions mentioned above are provided, the creativeness, artistry and satisfaction from work well done will flourish in both speech and reading.

The Relationship Between Writing and Reading

Usually the last of the communication forms to be developed, writing is also closely tied to each of the other language arts. As emphasized by Hildreth, writing is dependent upon oral language and comprehension and is associated with skill in reading.[17] If listening and reading are to be regarded as *intake* processes, and speaking and writing are to be regarded as *output* processes, the complementary nature of reading and writing becomes even more evident.

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[16] Dawson, Zollinger, Elwell. *Guiding Language Learning*, pp. 27-32.

In order to consider the relationship of reading and writing it is important to determine just what is meant by writing. As Lou LaBrant maintains, writing is based upon a combination of abilities—talking, structuring words into sentences, reading, forming letters, spelling and punctuating.[18] It is the intent of this discussion to regard writing as the written communication of experiences and ideas.

Many teachers overlook the complementary nature of reading and writing. In her article on the teaching of composition, Helen Olson states that "The writing is an outgrowth of all the students have read, all they have done, all the discussions in which they have participated, all the skills they have acquired in the handling of words and sentences and organization.[19]

There are research studies which substantiate this relatedness of reading and writing. Heys describes an experiment conducted at Lincoln-Sudbury Regional High School, Sudbury, Massachusetts, in which one class at each grade level wrote the equivalent of a theme a week, with rigorous corrections, revisions and rewriting. Another class at each grade level wrote themes every third week but spent one class period each week doing free reading. Tests used as criteria were the STEP Writing Tests and compositions, with the latter evaluated by readers who had worked with the College Board's Achievement Test. Investigators generalized that, with some notable exceptions, students in the reading classes scored consistently higher than students in the other classes.[20] Townsend reports other studies at the college and adult level which confirm this reading-writing relationship, and she concludes that certain aspects of these studies are applicable to instruction at all age levels.[21]

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[17] Gertrude H. Hildreth. "Interrelationships Between Written Expression and the Other Language Arts," *Interrelationships Among the Language Arts,* A Report Prepared by a Committee of the Nat'l. Conf. on Research in English, NCTE, 1954, p. 4.

[18] Lou LaBrant. "Writing, Most Difficult of the Language Arts," *National Educational Journal,* XLVII (March, 1958), p. 189.

[19] Helen F. Olson. "What is Good Teaching of Written Composition?" *An English Teacher's Reader.* (New York: The Odyssey Press, Inc., 1962), p. 101.

[20] Frank Heys, Jr. "The Theme-a-Week Assumption: A Report of an Experiment," *The English Journal,* LI (May, 1962), pp. 320-322.

[21] Agatha Townsend. "Interrelationships Between Reading and Other Language Arts Areas," *Interrelationships Among the Language Arts,* p. 19.

Most teachers are well acquainted with the concept of reading readiness which has so long been accepted as basic to instruction in the early school years. Few teachers are aware, however, of the same essential need for readiness for written expression. Children in the early grades benefit little from instruction in written language unless they have reached the necessary mental maturity level and have had sufficient growth in language power. Just so students at the secondary level profit little from instruction in writing unless they have this readiness from the standpoint of mature thought and facility in use of the language. Decisions as to the means for helping students reach this stage of readiness for writing would necessarily be based upon an understanding of the proper sequence of the language arts. Whatever the specific written assignment, there should be the preliminary steps of listening, speaking, reading, and ultimately, writing.

If the teacher who is to launch his junior or senior high school students upon a writing assignment has followed this sequence, reading and writing fall into their natural pattern of relationship. The question the teacher of reading faces, then, is how to utilize this relationship for effective instruction. Olson, who emphasizes that much reading and discussion of reading are basic to good teaching of written composition, illustrates ways many teachers employ to relate these two language arts.

One of the examples she lists for encouraging thinking is that of placing on the chalkboard each day a specially selected quotation with its source. As each student enters the classroom, he enters this quotation and source in a daily journal. For a five-minute period, the student then writes a few sentences concerning the meaning of the quotation and the ideas suggested to him. Such writing helps to make ideas the basis of classroom discussion and writing and to improve the level of individual writing.

Olson cites still another example in which the Pygmalion myth is used to teach writing of archetypal stories. After the teacher has read the myth from Ovid's Metamorphoses, students are encouraged to read and to act out parts from Shaw's *Pygmalion*. Next follows a time of listening to records of *My Fair Lady*. When some time has been spent in discussing how each of these interpretations has added to the original, students proceed to give a modern flavor to some ancient myth, fable, or legend.

Such an assignment leads to additional reading as students seek out the material needed in their writing.[22]

Frequently overlooked is the close relationship which exists between critical reading and effective writing. As Spache points out, critical reading necessitates "an interaction between the author and the reader."[23] Important, then, is the reader's understanding of the author's viewpoint. Questions which the teacher might find helpful as guides to pupils in critical reading would include:

1. What is the author's purpose?
2. From what point of view does the author write?
3. What are the facts?
4. What is the author's opinion?
5. What conclusions does the author lead you to draw?
6. What new ideas have you gained?
7. What changes, if any, have occurred in your thinking?
8. What effect does this written expression by this author have on you?

These same questions used as guides for the student's writing would help him develop greater understanding of both reading and writing.

Finally, this complementary nature of reading and writing may be used to benefit growth in vocabulary, spelling, and punctuation. Improvement of vocabulary of secondary students in reading or writing works reciprocally. Anything that is done to strengthen spelling skill in its rightful setting as an integral part of writing or to relate word analysis in reading to the study of spelling is beneficial. Whatever is done to emphasize purpose and the value of punctuation in writing also facilitates the reading done by students.

The close relationship of reading to each of the language arts is indeed an important consideration in the teaching of communication. Effective instruction means that teachers must be aware of and utilize these interrelationships in helping students grow in their ability to use the language of communication.

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[22] Olson. "What is Good Teaching of Written Composition?", pp. 101-102.

[23] George D. Spache. *Toward Better Reading*. (Champaign, Illinois: Garrard Publishing Company, 1964), p. 82.

A statement included in *The English Language Arts* effectively summarizes the integral approach to these four facets of communication:

> When the pupil has something to say, there should be someone to listen; when he has something to write, there should be someone to read. Young people should read and listen in order to enrich what they have to say and write. Moreover, communication does not occur in a vacuum, for its own sake. Men communicate because they are concerned with ideas, and the ideas are conveyed and received both by oral and written means.[24]

Linguistics

Linguistics—the theoretical study of language—may make a contribution to reading instruction. In a narrow sense, linguistics is the study of (1) the sounds of speech and (2) grammar.

Why is linguistics a contributor to reading instruction? There are two answers: First, linguists have identified the significant sounds of speech on which to base the teaching of (a) phonic skills and (b) pronunciation symbols in the dictionary. Second, linguists have researched the structure of language—especially the grammatical structure—which contributes to reading as a thinking process.

Of course, as implied in the first paragraph above, linguistics is only one of the sciences related to reading instruction. The other is psychology on which is based (a) plans for nurturing individual differences, (b) procedures for motivation, and (c) methods of teaching word perception skills and thinking abilities.

Phonemes

Phonology has two branches. The first one is *phonetics* which deals with all the variations of speech sounds—hundreds of them, as for example, the different sounds represented by the letter *l* in *like, tell, milk,* and *wealth.* The other branch of phonology is *phonemics* which deals with significant groupings of speech sounds—few in number, as for example, the phoneme *l* which includes all the variations of sounds represented by *l* in *like, tell,* and other words. It is this second branch of phonology—phonemics—which has helped to put the teaching of phonics and of the use of pronunciation symbols in the dictionary on a sounder basis.

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[24] The Commission on the English Curriculum. *The English Language Arts.* (New York: Appleton-Century Crofts, Inc., 1952), p. 196.

One of the major tasks in reading instruction is teaching the pupil the relationships between sounds (phonemes) and the letters (graphemes) which represent them. This relationship is often called the "alphabetic principle" and the study of these relationships has been called *phonics.*

In developing a *new* perceptual skill, the teacher usually begins with the sound of an element in a spoken word and ends with the letter or letters representing that sound in the written word. However, when the student is doing the first, or silent, reading of a selection, he is confronted with the written word. Here he needs help on *applying* his phonic skills to the letters or syllables of the word. Therefore, he is given on-the-spot help that directs his attention to the usual sound, for example, of *ou* in *out* or *ir* in *first,* or whichever part of the word is causing an impasse. Or, he is asked which rule applies to the *ck* of *pick* or the *ake* of *make.* Briefly, then, learning and applying phonic skills often requires two different procedures. Furthermore, recognition of a word may also require a number of other clues, such as context, structural analysis and word form.

Grammar

In some schools, educators limit their discussion of "linguistics and reading" to phonemics. This limited view of linguistics tends to distort the confusion regarding the possible contributions of linguistics to reading instruction.

Linguistics does embrace the *phonemic* structure of language. But it also embraces the *grammatical* structure of language: morphology plus syntax (word formation and sentence structure). That is, language as codification includes the phonemic, morphemic, and syntactic structure. Phonemics contributes to word perception in reading; grammar to the thinking facet of reading instruction.

Reading is thinking that results in comprehension or concept formation. It also is the use of skills for a specific purpose and for a relationship with the author. But, equally important, reading is thinking in a language.

(1) *Morphemics, the study of the smallest units of meaning.*

Phonemes are meaningless, but combinations of them make up higher-level language units called morphemes—minimum meaningful units. A morpheme may be a word (*e.g.*, the base word *boy*), an inflectional ending (*e.g.*, the *s* plural of *boys*), a prefix (*e.g.*, *re* of *rebuild*), a suffix (*e.g.*, *ance* of *acceptance*), and each base word of a compound (*e.g.*, *hothouse*). In these instances, the morpheme—*boy, s, re-, -ance, hot, house*—is the smallest unit of meaning.

(2) *Classes of morphemes, or parts of speech.*

Words are base forms (*e.g.*, *tire*), sometimes with one or more affixes (*e.g.*, *retiring, retirement, retirents*). That is, a word is made up of one or more morphemes. In general, words may be classified as (1) content words (*e.g.*, *Tom, arrived, interesting, safely*) and (2) function, or structure words (*the, a, very*).

About three hundred indispensable words—*the, a, can, most,* for instance—account for about one-third of the words commonly used in speech and writing. These words are called function words because they have no meaning outside language. They often are called structure words because they contribute to the meaning of language structure. For example, people have seen *horses, metals,* and other things but they have not seen *ands* and *mosts,* and *theres,* for they exist in language to express the relationships of grammatical structure.

Content, or full words, are classified by linguists as follows:

Class I, as *workers, apples*

Class II, as *loaded, occurs*

Class III, as *costly, interesting*

Class IV, as *quickly, aloud*

It will be noted that the above four form-classes approximate four parts of speech of traditional grammar: nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs.

Grammatical meaning is signaled by means of four devices: word order, word form, function words, and intonation.

To illustrate these four signals of grammatical meaning, consider this nonsense sentence:

The woggles ugged diggles.

The word *woggles* is a Class I word preceding a Class II word *ugged*. That is, the position of the Class I word is in contrast to the Class II word.

Moreover, the word forms *woggl(es)* and *diggl(es)* tend to characterize Class I words and the form *ugg(ed)* characterizes Class II words.

Furthermore, the function word *the* marks a Class I word.

Finally, the intonation—stress, pitch, and juncture—of *The woggles ugged diggles.* differentiates it from, for example, *The woggles ugged diggles?*.

Linguistics embraces several levels of language structure: phonemic, morphemic, and syntactic. In general, the structure of language is both intricate and complex.

One view of the syntactic structure is the grouping of sentence elements, or constructions:

1. Modification; e.g., *a week's work*
2. Predication; e.g., *spring came early*
3. Complementation; e.g., *teaching school*
4. Coordination; e.g., *a fine gentleman and an able scholar.*

CHAPTER 6

Developing Reading Interests in Students in the Secondary School

ONE GOAL OF reading instruction is to ensure that reading will provide personal pleasure and satisfaction for the student so that he will choose to read. An individual reads when he recognizes that through reading he can meet his needs, develop his personal worth, intensify his interests, widen his experiences, and provide pleasure for his leisure time.

> Do your students like to read?
>
> Do your students glow with pleasure when free reading time is suggested?
>
> Do your students turn eagerly to read to find answers to pertinent and personal questions?
>
> Do you force your students to look in a book; or has reading become a natural pursuit with them?
>
> Do your students like to discuss what they have read?

If a student survey indicates negative answers to such questions, it would be wise to consider taking an interest inventory of each student. The interest thus uncovered can provide the materials for motivating them to turn voluntarily and eagerly to reading and will prove to the student that reading can be a pleasure. People turn eagerly to things they find pleasurable, and they usually do these things voluntarily.

Today it is recognized that the student's interests as well as his ability to read are still in the process of development when he reaches the secondary school. Some who are bookworms at one age refuse to read at another. Some go through stages of being interested in reading who, at other times, absolutely refuse to read; yet later they may again turn eagerly to reading. Such a change is due mainly to the process of maturation and a consequent rapid change of interests. The challenge to all high school teachers is to recognize the stage of maturation and the individual interests of his students, as well as the level of techniques and skills at which the student can read with satisfaction to fulfill his own personal needs. This knowledge is indispensable for motivating students to develop a life-time interest in reading.

Many secondary school students naturally turn to reading for pleasure and to satisfy their personal needs. This may be due to the fact that mastering the mechanics of reading was easy for them and reading was never a frustrating or difficult task. Books may have been an important part in their daily life. Such students do not have to be motivated to read but, instead, they do need encouragement to broaden their reading interests and to help deepen their levels of insight into reading.

It may be very difficult to motivate other students to read. Some students have not developed an interest in reading. Such students may have had unhappy experiences in learning to read. Reading is associated with pain and displeasure and has never been rewarding to them. Their goals in life may appear not to require reading. Their reading needs may be merely the type which require understanding simple questions on printed forms and reading captions under pictures. It may appear that reading never will be a voluntary or enjoyable pastime for them. Other students, who do not read, are often intellectually capable of reading but require intensive motivation or corrective techniques in order to get them to read. This is a challenge which increases each teacher's responsibility to try to motivate all students to read during the time they are in school.

A student may have failed to develop an interest in reading for the following reasons:

1. Failed to achieve satisfaction and appreciation from books read because of inadequate background information on the subject of the book.
2. Required to read books which are too *difficult* or have *no interest* for him.
3. Required to *over-analyze* books read. (Long book reports)
4. Lacked sufficient *time and place* to become "lost" in a book, either at school or at home.
5. Compared with other students of higher reading ability which damaged his ego.

6. Lacked examples by peers and adults in the home and school who considered reading important.
7. Lacked access to suitable reading materials.
8. Failed to know how to locate suitable and desirable reading materials.

Harris states, "There are often marked differences between what adults think children ought to like to read and what children actually do like."[1] Many booklists which are compiled by teachers include books which are not popular with students. These books may be above the comprehension level for assimilation of ideas by the student; may have no real interest for the adolescent; may have a childish theme; may have an unattractive format; or may over-emphasize the feminine approach or center around narrow interests of an earlier day, or include topics such as abiding love, preaching theories, and deep philosophies which the adolescent is not willing or ready to accept.

The responsibility for developing interest in reading belongs to the entire community. This includes the parents and community resources as well as school administrators, content area teachers, and librarians. It is not a task which can be left exclusively to the reading and English teachers. A team approach is called for and a key member of that team is the librarian.

The librarian, whose image to staff and pupils is that of a catalog clerk, must educate them that a librarian does accept a major responsibility in establishing the reading habits of all students. A competent librarian is ready and willing to work with the school staff to provide a good program of reading. He is ready and willing to assist students in following and satisfying any reading interest which is manifested. Most librarians, who have an adequate budget and assistants to take care of library clerical details, are familiar with and do provide for the wide range of levels of reading ability in their school.

A library which is attractive, has comfortable furnishings and warm colors, and is alive to the needs of the teenager is a beckoning sign to all readers and especially to the reluctant ones. Reading interests and tastes seldom develop without encouragement beyond the classroom: teachers have said, "The librarian can make or break my reading program." All teachers should continually consult the librarian for assistance in their subject areas.

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[1] Albert J. Harris. *Effective Teaching of Reading.* (New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1962), p. 292.

The librarian is willing to familiarize the student and the school staff with the resources in the library. Cooperative buying of books by the staff, the students, and the librarian will stimulate interest and ensure greater circulation of these materials. The librarian recognizes that the interests of students in non-fiction as well as in fiction are important. What is pleasurable reading for one may be dull for another. The interest either inherent or created by a teacher or librarian for reading is usually the motivating factor to read. Librarians who promote library clubs, book clubs, book fairs, and displays of projects which are the by-product of reading, help to make the library a more attractive place than the street corner and the juke box joints.

The retarded reader in the school is likely to become frustrated if he is unable to find something in the library which he can read. A student who selects numerous books from the shelves, opens them, and finds that he gains nothing from the pages is not likely to return voluntarily for a book. A librarian or teacher, who can direct a student to a book he can read and enjoy, will likely create a return borrower. Easy books are often coded in some way, or they may be placed on a shelf by themselves. Perhaps the catalog cards could be marked in such a way that the student could locate books on his reading level. The librarian who has the cooperation of the school staff can quickly aid a student to select books that he *can* read. Today publishers recognize the wide range of reading abilities on many interests and provide a wide selection. The best method of book selection is for the teacher or librarian to be the connecting link between the student and the right book. By actually helping a student select a book or magazine, the teacher or librarian can better understand a student and guide his reading tastes. A teacher who spends time in the library becoming familiar with its contents will find added dividends in creating willing readers and will be able to enrich his teaching area with much available background material.

The teacher and librarian also have a responsibility to the advanced reader. An interest will be thwarted if on continual inquiry nothing can be found to further his interest. If the interest is too advanced or unusual for the school library, the public library or even the state materials center should be contacted to supply additional material. References to be used for the advanced student can be obtained from: Bureau of Secondary Curriculum Development, New York State Education Department, Albany, New York, 1958, 1960.

Fiction for High School Students of Superior Ability
More Books for High School Students of Superior Ability
Fiction for Superior Students, Grades 7, 8, 9.

If a student appears to have little interest in reading, perhaps a new set of goals or rewards will provide motivation. These may be in the form of gaining some information which the student is able to connect with himself in a personal way, such as careers, biography, how to make something. Establishing tasks which require reading may motivate the student, such as: compare the movie with the book, "20,000 Leagues Under the Sea"; compare the weapons of war in the 19th and 20th centuries; compare the dress of the early twenties and today; etc. Usually the task of reading will be interesting or boring to the uninterested student depending upon whether he is encouraged to make use of the ideas obtained from his reading.

The classroom teacher who understands that the many and varied interests of secondary students are very important to their reading development, will use some means of determining his students' present reading tastes. These may be ascertained by using one of the following suggestions: a reading inventory (see Appendix A), questionnaires (see Appendix B), interviews, teacher observations, student's cumulative folder, a sentence completion test (see Appendix C), or a check list of hobbies. The student's library withdrawal card or a list of the student's favorite books and magazines will also reveal the interest as well as the level of reading preference.

Numerous studies describing the reading interests of the secondary school students have been made. Reading interests have changed little in the past several years. Science and science fiction have enlarged the list, but Spache states that basically the reading trends have been the same for some time.[2] Career books are being read at an earlier age and there appears to be a greater demand for biography, with an increased interest in the lives of living persons. Girls read more than boys, and girls may read books that boys enjoy, but seldom does a boy read the same type of book as a girl; boys read more non-fiction. Usually the more intelligent the student the more he reads. Spache states that, "In general, however, the expressed preferences of bright, average, and dull pupils are fairly similar. Dull children read in a narrow range of interests and among dull boys the quantity seems related to their limited intelligence more so than among dull girls."[3]

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[2] George Spache. *Toward Better Reading.* (Champaign, Illinois: Garrard Publishing Company, 1960, Revised), p. 166. ("The basic trends have been reconfirmed in so many repetitive studies that there appear to be few fresh facts to be discovered.")

Senior high school students are interested in the thoughts and feelings of book characters, whereas the junior high school youngsters first of all want action. The high school student begins to seek to identify himself with characters. The older adolescents are more likely to recognize that a happy ending is not always compatible with another quality they like in books, namely, being true to life.

The following chart is compiled from several studies and from suggestions made by teachers in Broward County Florida secondary schools. It indicates the reading interests of students by grade and sex.

Interests

Grade	7		8		9		10		11		12	
Sex—Boy, Girl	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G	B	G
1. SPORTS	X	X	X	X	X		X		X		X	
2. ANIMALS	X	X	X	X	X							
3. ADVENTURE	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
4. MYSTERY	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
5. HUMOR	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
6. ROMANCE		X		X		X		X		X		X
7. CAREERS			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
8. SCIENCE FICTION	X		X		X		X	X	X	X	X	X
9. SCIENCE NON-FICTION	X		X		X		X		X		X	
10. PARENT RELATIONS				X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X
11. CLASSMATE RELATIONS					X	X	X	X	X	X		X
12. OPPOSITE SEX				X	X	X	X	X		X		X
13. PERSONAL PROBLEMS	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
14. (ETHICS) RELIGION								X	X	X	X	X
15. WAR	X		X		X		X	X	X	X	X	X
16. BIOGRAPHY	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
17. HISTORY	X	X	X	X								
18. HISTORICAL NOVELS							X	X	X	X	X	X

Key—X means a dominant interest.

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[3] *Ibid.*, p. 168.

All secondary teachers have the responsibility to broaden the reading tastes of their students. Available books, bulletin board displays, and other motivating devices may whet a student's appetite to read, but in order to accomplish the objective to develop an informed citizen, tastes for a variety of reading materials need to be initiated and encouraged, and the skills to read them developed.

How do we lead our students to read for ideas?

Are we encouraging our students to become informed citizens who understand our past, present, and know how to prepare for the future?

Are our students growing as persons as they read?

Are they developing values which indicate a sense of moral and ethical worth?

In order to develop a variety of reading tastes, guidance should begin early. Students should be involved with challenging problems and supplied with many materials which will provide an opportunity to find some answers. Situations should then be created in which the students will be able to use these ideas. Techniques might be used, such as debate, a panel or general discussion, a quiz program, a dramatization, or oral reading of parts of material previously read.

In directing the reading of a student to a higher level, a teacher must start where the student can read with pleasure. The reading must be within the range of the student's experiences or a readiness must be developed. A student cannot jump from the common mystery story to *Macbeth* without guidance and training in the reading skills of interpretation, inference, and appreciation.

Students need guidance in finding the hidden meaning in writing. This can be done by studying the author's style, the way he develops his characters, the plot, and his use of the setting in the development of both the characters and the plot. Students must be taught how to think while they read. They should be taught how to distinguish fact from fiction or opinion, how to examine generalizations, and how to evaluate ideas which apply to their own problems. Teachers must become skillful in asking provocative questions.

For the gifted student an enriched curriculum involving extensive and varied types of reading should be planned. For the slow-learner a limited program of reading, with a readiness to read developed for each reading assignment, should be planned. Continually working on reading skills in actual reading situations will do much toward raising the level of reading and developing reading tastes in either the advanced student or a slow-learner. Also, a widely read, informed teacher can do much to spur the secondary student toward an interest in reading.

According to Shores[4] high school students are not necessarily interested in asking about the same things that they want to read about. Their concerns in the world around them are very real. The study showed that "teachers consistently underestimated the interests of youth in social sciences and overestimated their concern with personal and social problems, especially those related to the opposite sex. . . . Teachers of both children and youth underestimate the strong reading interest in mystery stories."

The success or failure in developing tastes for a variety of reading materials or raising the level of reading will depend to a great extent upon the guidance of the teacher, the reaction of the student's peers to kinds of reading materials, and the conclusions a student is able to reach in solving his own purposes for reading.

Developing an interest in poetry is considerably easier in the younger child than it is in the secondary student. Only a small percentage will retain this interest unless this interest is actively fostered by the teacher. There are several reasons why children lose interest in poetry. Wittick states the following reasons:

> . . . family attitudes toward poetry; the reader's experiences with poetry, both in early childhood and adolescence; his teacher's attitude toward poetry; and finally the attitude of his peers toward poetry.[5]

Burton suggests that taking the hex off poetry in the high school may be done by choosing poetry which shows wide variety and virility and which is linked to students' concerns.[6]

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[4] J. Harlan Shores. "Reading Interests and Informational Needs of High School Students," *The Reading Teacher*. (Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, Inc., April 1964), pp. 536-544.

[5] J. Allen Figuel. "Developing Reading Interests," *Changing Concepts of Reading Instruction*. (International Reading Association Conference Proceedings, Vol. 6, 1961, p. 194.) (New York: *Scholastic* Magazine.)

[6] Dwight L. Burton. *Literature Study in the High Schools*. (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1961.)

The reading teacher who wishes to encourage the development of an interest in poetry will find numerous and detailed suggestions in the *Florida State English Guide, The English Journal,* and in most teachers' manuals to anthologies which include poetry. Most guides suggest that poetry should be an auditory experience and that tastes in poetry will depend upon the ability of the student to respond to the meaning, the feeling, the rhythm, and the word order.

Poetry is not to be used for teaching basic reading skills as much poetry requires advanced skills of reading.

Because of the many forms of mass communication which are popular today, it might appear that reading has decreased in popularity as a leisure time activity. But such is not the case. Strang refers to a study made in 1960 which relates that reading ranks fourth in young people's recreational preferences. The amount of time viewing television and the amount of time reading books appear to follow the same pattern at the same age level. "In the early grades, the average time a child spends on television is about two hours a day. Thereafter, it rises to a mountain peak of three or four hours at about the sixth or seventh grade; and it falls slowly throughout high school."[7] Strang and her associates state "The peak of voluntary reading is at about age thirteen, decreasing sharply from the seventh to the twelfth grade because of increased homework, extra-class activities, and part-time work."[8]

But, there is evidence in research today that these competitors can be used as motivators for developing an interest in reading. On TV, history can be viewed as it happens and reviewed the next day in the newspapers; biography can be "lived" on the screen and "relived" in supplemental reading; fiction and drama on TV or in the movies can be intriguing enough to create the desire to compare a performance with the original story (cross media analysis). It is a wise teacher who seeks not to discourage the use of time with the above-mentioned intruders; but one who uses all forms of mass media to encourage wide reading, and who also develops a technique for evaluating their worth. In TV language this has been called "dialmanship."

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[7] Wilbur Schramm, Jack Lyle, and Edwin B. Parker. *Television in the Lives of Our Children.* (Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1961), pp. 168-9.

[8] Ruth Strang et al. *Problems in the Improvement of Reading.* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1961), p. 403.

But, mass communication has not relegated reading to the lost arts. Witty[9] states that from our studies it appears that the average amount of reading has probably increased a little since the advent of TV. Increased book and magazine sales indicate that children are reading more books than ever before. Weiss[10] includes several studies in his book that relate that TV has stimulated book sales across the board. Public libraries report that the percentage of books taken out is increasing each year. Paperbacks have made more books available at a price most students can afford; also, they are accessible, for they are sold in every drug store, supermarket, and in almost every gathering place.

Comic books are not as great a problem in the secondary school as in the elementary school. If we are concerned about our students reading comics, perhaps we can be appeased by Blakely[11] who relates that some studies seem to show that children who read comic books read more library books than non-comic book readers. Others have pointed out that comic books are but a low step on the reading interest ladder. Few capable students remain there.

Teachers who need suggestions for correlating reading and other mass media might investigate "Part IV, Student Motivation" in *Reading in the Secondary Schools* by M. Jerry Weiss; *Television and the Teaching of English* by Neil Postman; *The Reading Teacher,* October 1957; *Substitutes of the Comics* by Constance Carr.

Today there is an abundance of reading materials (books, magazines, newspapers) both fiction and non-fiction, on many interests and reading levels, which are attractive and appealing and which provide a good beginning for developing interest in reading (Appendices F and G). However, only those materials which are easily accessible can compete with the heavy demands of social life and the easy availability of the other mass media which surround the high school student.

Because reading magazines and newspapers has become an important pastime and adequately fulfills the personal reading needs in the lives of many adults today, all teaching areas in the secondary schools should include references to teen-age and popular adult magazines and newspapers. These should be as available as books. Perhaps by introducing the better periodicals and dailies to students and guiding their selection, the influence of the undesirable ones can be lessened. But beware of imposing your interests on the students!

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[9] Paul Witty. "The Mass Media and Reading," *Challenge and Experiment in Reading.* J. Allen Figurel, editor (New York: Scholastic Magazine, 1962).

[10] M. Jerry Weiss. *Reading in the Secondary Schools.* (New York: The Odyssey Press, Inc., 1961).

[11] W. P. Blakely. "A Study of Seventh Grade Children's Reading of Comic Books as Related to Certain Other Variables," *Journal of Genetic Psychology,* 93 (December 1958), pp. 291-301.

The wide range of subjects covered by the pulps and slicks today makes them an excellent tool for motivating a student to read. Since the reluctant reader needs a variety of short selections, magazines and newspapers are ideal for stimulating his interest in reading.

Many magazines should be a part of the materials in a secondary reading program, some of which are the following:

AMERICAN GIRL
ANALOG
BOY'S LIFE
CLASSIC COMICS
FIELD AND STREAM
GALAXY
HARPER'S
JUNIOR NATURAL HISTORY
MAD
MAGAZINE OF FANTASY AND
  SCIENCE FICTION
MECHANICS ILLUSTRATED
MY WEEKLY READER
NATIONAL GEOGRAPHIC
NEWSWEEK
POPULAR MECHANICS
POPULAR SCIENCE
READER'S DIGEST
SATURDAY REVIEW
SCHOLASTIC MAGAZINE
SEVENTEEN
SPORTS ILLUSTRATED
TIME

Many techniques for motivating students to read available materials are essential if the students are to make use of the reading skills they have learned. Strang states, "There is evidence that the enriched program of extensive reading results in more competent readers than one limited to a basic reader and workbook."[12] The following are suggestions for motivating students to read extensively in either a corrective, remedial, or developmental program:

1. Have books, magazines, and newspapers available and accessible at all times. Provide time in the library for selecting books. Assist students to find books which will be interesting to them and are within the range of their reading ability. Encourage buying of paperbacks. Surround them with books. (Appendix D)
2. Give the students time to share what they have read. Students will accept recommendations from peers before adult

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[12] Ruth Strang et al. *Problems in the Improvement of Reading.* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1961), p. 410.

recommendations. Let the students explain how books have been useful to them or how much they have enjoyed certain books. (Appendix E)

3. Read to your students. Let some students read to others parts of a book which they enjoyed. Let the student "sell" a book to another student. Give him some credit if he can get someone else to read the book.
4. Use a brief summary for the student's reading record. Individual colored tabs for each book read can be kept in a pocket in a student's notebook.
5. Use a reading record which will encourage reading on related topics thereby broadening interests. (Use "My Reading Design" Form C for Grades 7-9, Form D for Grades 10-12. Obtained from Reading Circle, Inc., North Manchester, Indiana.) Use colored paper tabs for reading in different areas (science—green, sports—brown, etc.)
6. Provide reading ladders of books in your library or develop a class ladder which begins with material which can be read easily, but which will give a deep satisfaction of accomplishment as the student progresses to a higher level. (See Appendix F)
7. Develop with the class, topics or units of interest which deal with problems that are real to the students and help them find material on that topic. This will create more interest in reading than just handing them a book list.
8. Encourage panel discussions of books read.
9. Initiate book clubs. (See *Index to Reading Materials.*) Join Teenage Book Club or the Campus Book Club. Sell paperbacks. Join the Junior Great Books Program for able readers. Introduce the Literature Sampler (secondary edition) and Readers' Choice book list.
10. Prepare interesting bulletin boards with the students, which illustrate how books can solve personal problems; give career information; help with hobbies.
11. Have a book fair to which parents are invited so that they may become familiar with books for junior and senior high school students.

12. Prepare a "Hit Parade of Books" listing the books which are most popular in your library or class. This should be kept on a weekly or monthly basis.

13. Provide for dramatizing parts of a story. Use charades in which students dramatize parts of a story and let the other students guess the title of the book or the incident portrayed.

14. Become familiar with the literature your students are reading so that you can intelligently discuss the books with them. Your enthusiasm about a book may be contagious.

15. Make a world map of authors whose books you have read. Or a world map of the locale or settings about which books have been written.

Opinions about the teaching of classics in the reading class, in which the entire class reads one selection at the same time, have been expounded as both the thing to do and the thing *not* to do. Thematic units are preferred by many educators today, for these units provide for more varied interests and include books on many reading levels which can be related to the theme. Units developed by Scholastic Book Company (33 W. 42nd Street, New York 36, New York) have collections of books on animals, courage, family, etc. Teachers can make their own list of related books from their own library similar to Appendix G.

Many classics in adapted form are available for those who cannot read the originals but the use of adapted classics has been questioned. Some say, "Why give students a watered down version of the original which has lost all resemblance to it except the plot?" Is it still a classic? Or have all the characteristics of a "classic" been removed?

On the other hand, some teachers indicate that the reading of the adapted version is acceptable since it gives the student of low reading ability a feeling that he is like the other students when he can take part in class discussions. Some teachers prefer to read the original story or at least part of it to the students of low reading ability. Other teachers suggest that it is better to provide the student with good books on his own level of reading ability. This is not difficult to do, as many good books are available today which have a high interest level with a low readability level. (Appendix H)

Teachers will decide which policy they are going to follow in their classes. The teacher's training may have been such that they are successful with only the "accepted" titles handed to us from the past. Classics may be available but few other books. Let us constantly observe the gleam in the eye, or the frown on the brow of our students. If the gleam is there; the nod of understanding; the breathless anticipation to continue reading, we may be on the right track. If there is a frown on the brow; a wandering of the eye; a drag of the feet when entering the room, by all means drop the classic and become familiar with:

Gateways to Readable Books: An Annotated Graded List of Books in Many Fields for Adolescents Who Find Reading Difficult. Compiled by Ruth Strang, et al, H. W. Wilson Co., 1952.

Books, Young People and Reading Guidance: Detailed motivational techniques are included as well as an understanding of young people and the books they read, by Geneva R. Hanna and Mariana K. McCallister, New York: Harper and Brothers, 1960.

Your Reading, 1960; *Books for You,* 1959, National Council of Teachers of English.

Good Reading for Poor Readers by George D. Spache, Champaign, Illinois: Garrard Publishing Co., 1964.

Aids for Knowing Books for Teenagers, Circular #450, Office of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

Readability and Interest

Since the range in reading ability in most secondary classes is quite wide, it is important that the person who is guiding a student's reading has a general idea of the independent reading level of each student as well as an inventory of his reading interests. If books in a student's interest range are selected and found by him to be too difficult for comfortable reading, the interest approach to reading is sure to fail. Thus, when considering interests it is also necessary to consider level of reading ability.

To develop and maintain reading interest, the readability of a book and the reading ability of the student must correlate within a range of the student's ability to gain knowledge or pleasure from the reading. Most students soon lose interest in a book with which they must struggle for understanding. Some students may read above their independent reading level because of an interest in the subject matter of the book, but this is likely to be the exception rather than the rule.

Several formulas can be used to measure readability, such as the Dale-Chall and the Flesch Readability Formulas. Some of the factors which are included in estimating the readability of a book are:

Word difficulty

Frequency of usage of words

Percentage of different words

Sentence length

Density of ideas

Reader's familiarity with material

Human interest

Multi-syllable words

To aid the selection process, books can be keyed using the letters "E," "L," "S," "A," and interest catagories can be arranged and the student's reading guided within the framework of the readability estimate. This can be done after much experience and knowledge of books, or good booklists are available to assist parents, teachers, and librarians in selecting books of many interests at various reading ability levels. Several of these are listed in the index to reading materials for students at the end of this chapter in Appendix H.

The following typology will fit the great majority of secondary school students:

1. "E" Easy books or books with a readability level below sixth grade.
2. "L" Books (low) with a readability level of grades six and and seven.
3. "S" Books (standard) with a readability level of grades eight and nine.
4. "A" Books (advanced) with a readability level from grade ten upward.

Appendix G is a teacher-made chart which indicates books according to both interest and readability. This chart was made using the following booklists as references:

Good Reading for Poor Readers. Revised 1964 by George D. Spache, Ph.D. Garrard Publishing Company, Champaign, Illinois.

Adventuring with Books and 1963 Supplement. A reading list for the elementary grades, 1960 edition. Co-chairmen: Muriel Crosby and Beatrice Davis Hurley and Elementary Reading List Committee, National Council of Teachers of English, 5088 Sixth, Champaign, Illinois.

Your Reading and 1963 Supplement. A list for junior high schools by Committee on the Junior High School Book List. Chairman and editor—Austin High School, Chicago. National Council of Teachers of English, 704 South Sixth Street, Champaign, Illinois.

Books for You and Supplement, 1961-62. A list for leisure reading for use by students in senior high schools. By Committee on the Senior High School Book List. Chairman: Anthony Tovatt, Ball State College, Muncie, Indiana. National Council of Teachers of English, 704 South Sixth Street, Champaign, Illinois.

A teacher who wishes to appraise the reading interests and appreciations of his students might use some of the following criteria similar to those which Strang suggests identify the student who has developed an interest in reading:

1. Laughs or smiles to himself as he reads a humorous book.
2. Voluntarily resumes reading a book he has chosen as soon as his other work is completed.
3. Uses school and public library for recreational and study reading.
4. Reads many worthwhile books.
5. Shows sensitivity to various levels of interpretations.
6. Enjoys author's style in prose and poetry—picture-forming words, rhythm or cadence.
7. Increases his awareness of and finds personal value in reading.
8. Appraises the quality of a book, magazine, television show, or movie.
9. Uses reading in daily life outside of school.
10. Reads as a favorite leisure-time activity.
11. Continues trend toward increased voluntary reading.
12. Improves the quality of his reading.
13. Widens the scope of his reading.
14. Develops one or more intensive reading interests.
15. Enjoys discussion of books.
16. Shows decreased interest in reading the comics.
17. Resists forces such as television and auto riding that usurp reading time.
18. Finds more motivation to read.
19. Uses television and other media of communication as part of a well-balanced program, recognizing the unique value of each medium and its special value in helping him to build an oral vocabulary and to supply an experience background for reading.
20. Reads to learn more about worthwhile hobbies.

As interest is a dominant key to all reading, and reading is an indispensable means of communication in our civilized society, each teacher has the responsibility to create a climate, provide the materials and structure the rewards which will promote the development of an interest in reading. A significant means by which appreciation of good writing can be developed is through guided reading of literary selections or guidance of voluntary or required reading during free time. Free reading time in the senior high school has been found to contribute to the breadth of acquaintance with a variety of literary types, to growth in interest in different kinds of reading material, and to contact with cultures that vary as to nationality and period. The task of creating interest in reading in the secondary school is great, for reading interests have been found to vary significantly both in kinds and amount with age, sex, intelligence, social class background, reading competence, experience, availability of books in school and at home, and the amount of promotion used to correlate reading with other means of communication such as radio, films, and television. But the interested, informed, and creative teacher will get the right book in the hands of the right student at the right time. In some cases, little more is needed to make students want to read.

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Papers

Speech before the "Developing Lifetime Reading Habits" sequence, International Reading Association Convention, Miami, Florida, May 3, 1963, by William D. Boutwell, Editorial Vice President, Scholastic Magazines and Book Service. "Bringing Readers and Books Together Successfully . . . Through Paperback Book Clubs and School Book Stores."

APPENDIX A

Although this form takes considerable time for a student to complete, an insight into a student's reading development can be clearly followed by having it filled out at various grade levels and then making comparisons.

Students should be helped to spell certain words or names while completing this form so that the student will not skip the item because he cannot spell the name of an encyclopedia or a magazine.

(Prepared by Arno Jewett, Specialist for Language Arts, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, Washington, D. C.)

What Do You Like to Read?

I. Reading at Home

A. Newspapers

1. To which newspaper(s) does your family subscribe? ______
____
2. How much time do you spend a day reading newspapers? __________ minutes
3. List your three favorite sections of the newspaper:
   a. ______________________________
   b. ______________________________
   c. ______________________________
4. What two news topics are you following closely?
   a. ______________________________
   b. ______________________________

B. Magazines

1. What magazines do you read regularly in your home?
   a. ______________ c. ______________
   b. ______________ d. ______________
2. Which magazine has the most interesting stories? ________
____
3. What subjects do you like to read about in magazines? ____
____

C. Books

1. Approximately how many novels and biographies are there in your library at home? ________
2. How many of these books have you read? ________
3. Are you or your parents members of a book club? ________
4. How many books do you own personally? ________

II. Reading at the Public Library

A. Do you have a library card? ______; is it active? ______

B. About how many books have you checked out of the public library in the past year? ______

C. What magazines do you read at the public library? ________
________, ________, ________

D. How many times a month do you go to the public library? ____

III. Use of the School Library

A. Do you know how to find books you want without the librarian's help? ______

B. What is the purpose of the Reader's Guide? ________
____

C. For what is the card catalogue used? ________
____

D. What encyclopedia do you refer to most often? ________

E. Do you have difficulty finding certain things in the library? ____
If so, what? ________

IV. Reading and Other Recreation

A. Write 1st, 2nd, and 3rd by your first, second, and third choice of these types of writing:

a. Novels ________
b. Short Stories ______
c. Plays ________
d. Poetry ________
e. Articles ________
f. Comic Books ________
g. Biography ________
h. News ________

B. Write the titles of three books which you have enjoyed this year:

a. ________
b. ________
c. ________

C. Write the title of the book you have enjoyed most of all
____

D. Underline the four kinds of stories you like best and put a check before your favorite. If possible, write the title of a favorite story after each type you underline.

a. Animal ________
b. Action and adventure ________
c. Ghost and other mysteries ________
d. Humor ________
e. Romance or love ________
f. Modern science ________
g. Mechanical things (airplanes, etc.) ________
h. Foreign countries ________
i. War stories ________
j. Space travel or fiction ________
k. Home life ________
l. Interesting people ________

E. What do you like to do best when you have free time? ________
____

F. What kind of work do you want to do when you leave school?
____

G. Whose recommendations do you usually follow when you read a book? ______________________________________
____

H. Do you have your own personal library at home? ________
If so, how many books? __________

I. Do you have a television set at home? __________ If you do, how much time do you spend daily watching television? _____ hours.

J. Have you read any books because of television shows you have seen? __________ If so, name them. ______________________

K. As you know, some young people like to read books during their spare time, others don't. Why do you think some teenagers enjoy reading books when they have time? ________________
____
____

APPENDIX B

To the teacher: The following is a fictitious bibliography, complete with fictitious annotations. Teachers can make their own similar to these items covering the interests of their particular grade level. The fictitious list is used so that the student will not be influenced by a book he has read or by a book the teacher has mentioned. If the student is given the bibliography early in the year it is possible to note the changes in interests and growth in maturity of the student if it is repeated again at the end of the year.

To the Students: Read this fictitious bibliography. Indicate whether you would like to read the book by circling "yes" or "No." If you are undecided circle the question mark.

Would you be interested in reading these books?

Bibliography[1]

Yes No ? 1. *The Little Donkey*
What happens when the little donkey, so long an outsider, wins fame in his village.

Yes No ? 2. *How Big?*
A delightful story showing the differences in size of animals from mice to elephants.

Yes No ? 3. *A Wish for Julie*
What happened after Julie's one great wish was granted.

Yes No ? 4. *Poems for Moderns*
A collection of poetry designed to appeal to young people of today.

Yes No ? 5. *The Smallest Boy*
How does it feel to be the smallest boy in the class? Little Bill shows some leadership.

Yes No ? 6. *Vagabonds All*
Stories of the world's greatest travelers and explorers.

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[1] Louis H. Braun, James A. Hale, Russell K. Britton (Directors). *A Guide for Teaching the Language Arts*. Stock Number 93854. (City and County of Denver and State of Colorado, 1953).

Yes No ? 7. *The Happy Kitten*

The little kitten was playing happily when she came face to face with Oscar, the bulldog pup.

Yes No ? 8. *Circus Horse*

Lady had always been the gentlest horse in the show. Why did she change when the new trainer arrived?

Yes No ? 9. *Young Warriors*

A portrait of American youth fighting the battles of World War II.

Yes No ? 10. *Texas Roundup*

Life at its busiest when cowboys round up the steers in Texas.

Yes No ? 11. *Willie West of Washington High*

More troubles beset Willie than he can handle, but he manages to save the big day for Washington.

Yes No ? 12. *Space Travelers*

What happened when strange people arrived in a weird-looking craft.

Yes No ? 13. *Lafitte at New Orleans*

The history-making adventures of the famous pirate.

Yes No ? 14. *Texas Star*

The story of young pioneers who follow a star while seeking a homestead in Texas.

Yes No ? 15. *Unknown Friends*

Stories of modern-day miracles which make our living easier.

Yes No ? 16. *Hundreds of Islands*

Jody's big day included a long ride on the big lake steamer, touching every large island in the lake.

Yes No ? 17. *Choose a Career*

Your life is what you make it. Learn what different jobs are really like and prepare for yours.

Yes No ? 18. *Perry Pelican*

Perry's large jaw got him in trouble, but he was glad he had it before he was through.

Yes No ? 19. *All the Way South*

The story of the conquest of the South Pole, together with true, exciting adventures.

Yes No ? 20. *Mutiny!*

All the sailors felt their only chance was to take over the ship, even though they were hundreds of miles from shore. Could they live through it?

Yes No ? 21. *Famous Women of Our Country*

True portraits of eighteen women who have had more to do with our country's well-being than is generally known.

Yes No ? 22. *The Lazy Lion*

The king of the jungle learned the hard way that ruling is a full-time job.

Yes No ? 23. *Chug-Chug*

The little car didn't have much power, but it took its master where he wanted to go, mostly on "heart" alone.

Yes No ? 24. *Horses!*

How different kinds of horses help man. Excellent illustrations.

Yes No ? 25. *Away at School*

Tommy didn't like living at school; the boys weren't like his friends at home. How Tommy learned by living with others.

Yes No ? 26. *Tommy Sims, Boy Scientist*

An exciting story about a boy who didn't like school but who later helped everyone in town.

Yes No ? 27. *What is Art?*

An interesting commentary on art and its values for young people.

Yes No ? 28. *Life at Alcatraz*

How would it feel to be in the government's special prison for its worst criminals for the rest of your days?

Yes No ? 29. *Murder at Sunset*

Who could have done such a horrible thing? And who owned the huge footprints in the garden? Only one man could solve the ghastly riddle.

Yes No ? 30. *Your Newspaper*

Life behind the typewriters, desks, and presses. The story behind the stories.

Yes No ? 31. *Mr. Smith*

Mr. Smith is a cocker spaniel puppy who finds out about life in the big city and gets lost in the process.

Yes No ? 32. *Tim Helps the Mailman*

Tim finds out what the mailman does every day and learns about letters and their travels at the same time.

Yes No ? 33. *On the Trail of Treasure*

The secret map leads Shorty and his pals to the island, but finding the treasure isn't too easy.

Yes No ? 34. *A Trip to Washington*

Jimmy and Julie see all the beautiful buildings in Washington and get to watch men of government at work.

Yes No ? 35. *Club House Days*

The "Secret S" club had just finished their club house when the neighbors made them take it down.

Yes No ? 36. *The Young Queen*

Great problems in Spain and America faced the new queen, who had thought she would never be ruler.

Yes No ? 37. *Two Kittens*

A laughable story which proves that two kittens can be more than twice as playful as one.

Yes No ? 38. *A Moose in Our Barn*
Proof that a moose in a barn can do more damage than a bull in a china shop.

Yes No ? 39. *Lives of Great Composers*
Chopin, Wagner, Debussy, Liszt, and Tschaikovsky lead the list of twenty-three famous music-makers.

Yes No ? 40. *The Mob*
Short, direct, and realistic story of the underworld in action. Can ordinary police methods succeed?

Yes No ? 41. *Dogs Next Door*
There were three when the family moved in next door. Now there are sixteen! What next?

Yes No ? 42. *New Love for Linda*
Linda thought she couldn't be happier when two boys were feuding over her. She learned she was wrong when Jerry had to choose between his career and Linda.

Yes No ? 43. *Rosalia*
Mark hadn't expected to meet anyone like Rosalia when he went to college in Mexico City during the summer. What could he do when September came?

Yes No ? 44. *Marines in Action!*
Highlights of the Marine Corps from the time of the Revolutionary War, with emphasis on recent engagements.

Yes No ? 45. *Mr. Miser Spends His Money*
An interesting and entertaining story of the man who spent as little as possible—until he met a friend who showed him how to have fun.

Yes No ? 46. *At the Rodeo*
You don't know the thrills of a rodeo unless, like Janice, you have to watch while death brushed your favorite rider.

Yes No ? 47. *The Strange Journey*
A mature book dealing with World War II. Follow Peter Riter's journey through the eyes of an infantryman.

Yes No ? 48. *Old Stonewall*
A complete and well-told biography of the famous Confederate general, with authentic scenes from the great war.

Yes No ? 49. *The Little Trunk*
The solution of the mystery hinged on one little steamer trunk. What one clue made it so important?

APPENDIX C

Incomplete Sentences*

Here is your chance to write exactly the way you feel. You may write anything you like but it must be what you think.

Answer all questions, do them in order and do them rapidly.

1. Today I feel ....
2. When I have to read, I ....
3. I get angry when ....
4. To be grown up ....
5. My idea of a good time is ....
6. I wish my parents knew ....
7. School is ....
8. I can't understand why ....
9. I feel bad when ....
10. I wish teachers ....
11. I wish my mother ....
12. Going to college ....
13. To me, books ....
14. People think I ....
15. I like to read about ....
16. On weekends I ....
17. I'd rather read than ....
18. To me, homework ....
19. I hope I'll never ....
20. I wish people wouldn't ....
21. When I finish high school ....
22. I'm afraid ....
23. Comic books ....
24. When I take my report card home ....
25. I am at my best when ....
26. Most brothers and sisters ....
27. I don't know how ....
28. When I read math ....
29. I feel proud when ....
30. The future looks ....
31. I wish my father ....
32. I like to read when ....
33. I would like to be ....
34. For me, studying ....
35. I often worry about ....
36. I wish I could ....
37. Reading science ....
38. I look forward to ....
39. I wish ....
40. I'd read more if ....
41. When I read out loud ....
42. My only regret ....

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* *The Reading Teacher*. Vol. 10, No. 4, April 1957, p. 197.

APPENDIX D

Interesting Adult Books for Young People

This list was compiled for the joint committee of the NEA and the American Library Association by the YASD Committee on the Selection of Books and Other Materials: Margaret Atwood, Baltimore Polytechnic Institute; Dorothea Coachman, North Junior High School, Bloomfield, New Jersey; Barbara Joyce Duree, *ALA Booklist* and *Subscription Books Bulletin;* E. Ben Evans, Kern County Union High School and Junior College District, Bakersfield, California; Mary L. Pickett, Milwaukee Public Library; Ruth Schneider, The New York Public Library; with the advice and assistance of school and public librarians from 22 states and from Canada; under the chairmanship of Elaine Simpson, Manhattan Borough Young Adult Specialist, The New York Public Library.

All the Traps of Earth and Other Stories by Clifford D. Simak. Nine top-notch science fiction stories of aliens on earth and of men on alien planets. 1962. 287 p. Doubleday. $3.95.

Around the World Submerged by Edward L. Beach. A first-hand account of the secret, eighty-four day, shakedown cruise of the Triton, world's largest nuclear submarine; a cruise which retraced, in part, Magellan's route. 1962. 293 p. Holt. $4.95.

Atlantic Fury by Hammond Innes. Mystery and adventure as men battle a polar storm while evacuating a British guided missile unit from an island in the North Atlantic. 1962. 308 p. Knopf. $4.95.

Fail-Safe by Eugene Burdick and Harvey Wheeler. What happens when a mechanical failure sets off an accidental atomic attack by American bombers on the USSR—a documentary in fiction for mature young adults. 1962. 286 p. McGraw. $4.95.

The Guns of August by Barbara W. Tuchman. Exciting, valuable look at the first days of World War I from the British, Belgian, French, Russian, and German points of view: the leaders, the men, the events, the rigidly planned strategies, the politics, and the military *mystique* affecting history, acutely interpreted and vividly presented. 1962. 511 p. Macmillan. $6.95.

Hornblower and the Hotspur by C. S. Forester. Another in the series dealing with Horatio Hornblower, English seaman extraordinary, who defies shoals, storms, and Spanish and French ships, to win his promotion to Captain. 1962. 344 p. Little. $4.95.

In the Clearing by Robert Frost. Poetry, wit, wisdom, and consummate craftsmanship with real depth beneath the surface of everyday language and clever rhyming. 1962. 101 p. Holt. $4.00.

The Ivy Tree by Mary Stewart. Suspense in a fast-paced story of mystery and double-dealing in Northumberland: Mary Grey, newly arrived stranger, impersonates Annabelle, who had run away from home eight years before and is presumed dead. 1961. 320 p. Morrow. $3.95.

Kirkland Revels by Victoria Holt. Gothic romance in which a pregnant young widow fights terror and physical danger so that her child may be born to inherit the family estate. 1962. 312 p. Doubleday. $4.50.

Let My People Go by Albert Luthuli. Portrait of a rare man, winner of the 1960 Nobel Prize, as well as a very clear description of the confused South African political and economic measures against the native African people. 1962. 255 p. McGraw. $5.50.

The Lightship by Siegfried Lenz. Short, tense suspense story of three days on a lightship off the coast of Germany where good and evil men are in conflict and the true nature of courage is revealed. 1962. 125 p. Hill and Wang. $3.50.

The Mathematical Magpie edited by Clifton Fadiman. Subtitle: "Being More Stories, Mainly Transcendental, Plus Subsets of Essays, Rhymes, Music, Anecdotes, Epigrams, and other Prime Oddments and Diversions, Rational or Irrational, as Derived from the Infinite Domain of Mathematics." 1962. 300 p. Simon and Schuster. $4.95.

Mother and Son by Isoko and Ichiro Hatano. Sensitive and revealing collection of notes and letters exchanged between a Japanese mother and her teenage son during the war and occupation years. 1944-47. 1962. 195 p. Houghton. $3.75.

The Mouse on the Moon by Leonard Wibberley. A satirical account of the way in which the small Duchy of Grand Fenwick outwits the USA and the USSR in the space race, by the author of *The Mouse That Roared*. 1962. 191 p. Morrow. $3.95.

My Land and My People by the Dalai Lama of Tibet. An unpretentious recital of his identification as the fourteenth Dalai Lama, his brief rule, the invasion and seizure of his country by the Chinese Communists, and his exile in India. 1962. 271 p. McGraw. $5.95.

A New Russia? by Harrison E. Salisbury. A perceptive report on the intellectual ferment in Russia, the changes there over the past twenty years, and an analysis of the importance of these changes to U. S. foreign policy. 1962. 143 p. Harper. $3.50.

Pride of the Moor by Vian Smith. How the lives of many people in a poor Dartmoor Community are changed by young Mark and his horse, foal of a broken-down racing mare; more than a horse story because of its characterization, picture of English village life, and style. 1962. 284 p. Doubleday. $4.50.

Secret Service Chief by U. E. Baughman with Leonard Wallace Robinson. Exciting details of apprehending counterfeiters and of the problems involved and scientific techniques used in guarding three Presidents and their families. 1962. 266 p. Harper. $4.95.

The Senses of Animals and Men by Lorus and Margery Milne. A readable survey, lively in spite of detail, of questions that scientists are asking about senses (the five ordinary ones as well as those less well known) in all forms of animal, bird, insect, fish, and human life. 1962. 305 p. Atheneum. $6.95.

The Serpent's Coil by Farley Mowat. True adventure on three freighters at the time of the 1948 hurricanes, especially the dogged, resourceful, and courageous efforts to salvage one of the ships. 1962. 189 p. Little. $4.95.

Silent Spring by Rachel Carson. A biologist's warning against the possible effects on life of man's large scale use of chemical pesticides in his warfare against insects. 1962. 368 p. Houghton. $5.00.

Star-Raker by Donald Gordon. Taut, realistic suspense as scientist and pilot try to locate and correct deadly mistakes in a new supersonic jet airliner; love story present but secondary. 1962. 288 p. Morrow. $3.95.

A Thousand Springs by Anna Chennault. The love story of Anna Chan, young Chinese reporter, and Major General Chennault, commander of the Flying Tiger, told against the backdrop of the Sino-Japanese War and the Communist seizure of China. 1962. 318 p. Eriksson. $5.00.

To a Young Dancer by Agnes DeMille. An honest and witty guide for the person who plans to study ballet; the years of training, the hard work necessary for ultimate perfection, the details of preparing for a performance, lists of ballet schools and of colleges and universities offering courses in the dance with the author's evaluation of each. 1962. 175 p. Little. $4.50.

To Catch an Angel by Robert Russell. The determined campaign of a man blinded at the age of six to prove that he is normal and belongs to the world of sighted people. 1962. 317 p. Vanguard. $4.50.

Travels with Charley in Search of America by John Steinbeck. A famous author's journey of rediscovery with a French poodle. 1962. 246 p. Viking. $4.95.

Victory Over Myself by Floyd Patterson with Milton Gross. An honest, sympathetic, but not partisan, adult account of Patterson's victories over environment, poverty, an inferiority complex, and prejudice as well as over his challengers in the ring. 1962. 244 p. Bernard Geis. $3.95.

We Seven by M. Scott Carpenter and others. Accounts of the training, tests, and flights of the astronauts in their own words. 1962. 352 p. Simon and Schuster. $6.50.

Where the Heart Is by Elizabeth Borton de Trevino. Both family story and a picture of the uniqueness of Mexico as Mrs. Trevino tells of her education as a wife and mother. 1962. 286 p. Doubleday. $3.95.

The Whispering Land by Gerald Durrell. A delightful story of the author's adventures while collecting animals in Argentina and Patagonia for his private zoo. 1962. 235 p. Viking. $3.95.

APPENDIX E

Giving Variety to Book Reports

How to make book reports interesting, challenging, and satisfying for both the reporter and his audience is a perennial problem for the language arts teacher. Many teachers use imaginative, creative ideas for making this an enjoyable and worthwhile experience. One high school English teacher, Howard S. Rowland of Briarcliff Manor, New York, suggests these ideas, which originally appeared in his article, "Alternatives for the Book Report," in the ENGLISH JOURNAL, February 1962.

Short Story

1. *TV Presentation.* Prepare the story for TV and write a brief script.
2. *Letter to Author.* Write a letter to the author discussing your reasons for enjoying the book and making suggestions for improvement.
3. *Point of View.* Tell the story again from the view point of another character in the story, perhaps two other characters, showing the influence of personality on the seeming "truth" of the story. (Like the film, "Rashomon.")
4. *Sequel.* Tell what happened after the story ended.
5. *Style.* Retell a passage in the story in somebody else's style. For example, retell in the clipped, short sentences of Hemingway, or the long, complex sentences of Dickens.
6. *Author's Point of View.* Show how color or key words or ideas run through the story. Discuss their purpose and effectiveness.
7. *New Ending.* Resolve the conflict in a different way. Write another ending.
8. *Universality.* Write about a decision of yours which required a choice similar to that faced by a character in your book.
9. *Legal Brief.* Prepare a legal brief defending or denying the validity of the story or the actions of one of the characters.
10. *Advertisement or Book Cover.* Prepare an advertisement or book jacket which would stress the good features of the book and induce people to read it.

Drama

1. *Changing Language.* Rewrite a scene from a Shakespearean play in contemporary idiom.
2. *Set Design.* Create a miniature set for the play.

3. *Dramaturgy.* Write a report on costumes, lighting, acting styles, scenery, or props for a period play.
4. *Direction.* Imagine yourself as director for this play and write a short account of how you would stage a scene, with particular emphasis on what you would tell actors in order to make the dialog more meaningful.
5. *Research.* Study reference material on the playwright and discuss how events or people in his life may have influenced the play.
6. *Drama Critic.* Review the play as if you were the drama critic for a local paper (a tabloid).
7. *You as Hero.* Place yourself in the protagonist's position and relate how plot would have been affected with you as the hero.
8. *Verisimilitude.* Create or recall an incident which could have been or has occurred in your community and which would be similar to an incident in the play.
9. *The Art Form.* Write an account in short story form of one of the scenes in the play; demonstrate your awareness of the dependency of the playwright on the director, the actors, the scenic designer, etc., to tell the full story in play form.
10. *Structure.* Show the similarities between a bull fight, a tennis match, and your play in structure (plot, development, climax, denouement), entertainment value, conflict, etc.

Novel

1. *Change Setting.* Imagine the character in the book in a different setting, for example, twentieth century Harlem. Change mood, time, or setting, and show how it affects characters and plot.
2. *TV.* How would Alfred Hitchcock present your novel on his program? How would it be presented on "Twilight Zone"?
3. *Court Trial.* Create a situation where a character in a novel is on trial in court for his treatment of another character or his improper behavior (e.g., Wildeve for his treatment of Thomasin). Write a summary speech as prosecutor or defense attorney.
4. *Movie Personality.* Select a well-known movie personality to play character in the book and give reasons for your choice.
5. *Convert to Film.* Write a scenario for the climactic scene of the novel.
6. *You as Hero.* Would you have acted differently from the main character? How would the plot have changed?
7. *Letter.* Write a letter to a foreign student discussing why this book is representative or not representative of American society.
8. *Eighteenth Century Student.* Imagine an eighteenth century schoolboy, accustomed to reading Shakespeare, Milton, Addison, etc., reading your book. What would be his reactions?
9. *Life Story.* Imagine *Life* magazine doing a feature story on the book. Describe the photographs they would take, and write the captions for each.

Biography

1. *Hero vs. Contemporary.* Contrast the hero with a contemporary personality in a similar field (e.g., Babe Ruth in the "Story of Babe Ruth" with Mickey Mantle).

2. *Personal Interview.* Interview a student or a neighbor. Take notes as for a biography. Then write an outline for the biography modeled after the biography you have read.
3. *Report to Committee.* Imagine your biographical character being interviewed before an investigating committee of UNESCO, U. S. Senate or House, PTA, or NCAA. Write an appropriate speech for him or her.
4. *Research.* Consult the *Dictionary of Biography* and other sources for facts about a character. Based upon an incident or set of facts, create a short chapter as it might have been developed in a biography.
5. *Stylized Letter.* Write a letter in the style, with the feeling, in the character of the subject of the biography, e.g., Thoreau writes to President Kennedy.
6. *Change of Time.* How would the community look upon Rockefeller in the days of Machiavelli? Louis Pasteur today?
7. *TV.* What incident in the book would be ideal for TV? How and why?
8. *The Successful Man.* What characteristics of the main character are present in all successful men and women? What are his or her unique characteristics?
9. *Depth Interview.* Interview a prominent person in the community (fire chief, writer, musician, senator) on one aspect of his life: goal, avocation, education, discipline, first job, etc. Write a short biographical chapter modeled after the biography you have read.
10. *Social Evaluation.* How would the subject of the biography have changed in character or personality if he had been brought up in your town or city and had attended your school?

Essays

1. *Opposite Point of View.* Take the opposite point of view on an essay, for example, one attacking the use of the A-bomb on Hiroshima. The title of your essay could be "Hiroshima Was Necessary."
2. *Style Modeling.* Use parallel style but different content. For example, Bacon's "Of Studies" would serve as a student guide in style for "Of Good Baseball."
3. *Individual Style.* Take the same theme or subject and write your own essay with your own thoughts and individual style.
4. *Back in Time.* Imagine yourself living in the time of the person writing the essay. Take an incident in your own life and write it as it would have occurred at that time.
5. *Forward in Time.* Transpose an important figure in an essay of the past to modern times: Sir Roger de Coverley in a New York subway; an early scientist at Cape Kennedy; Hamilton or Jefferson at the U. N.
6. *The Magazine Essay.* Select the magazine which would be most appropriate for your selection of essays and discuss why.
7. *The Picture Essay.* What does a picture story in *Life* or *Look* have in common with your selection of essays: beginning, end, dramatic movement, etc.? Try also comparison with musical composition.
8. *Newspaper Story.* Recast the ideas of an essay into a newspaper story (naming the newspaper). Write in the style of Ed Sullivan, James Reston of the New York *Times*, Jack O'Brien.

9. *Biographical Hints*. Create a brief biographical sketch, using liberal imagination, of the author of the informal essay, basing your sketch upon inferences from his writing.

These six topics for a book report lesson by Christine Yoder taken from the ENGLISH JOURNAL, March 1962 (page 210), are also suggested for improving book reports:

1. State which character you would like as a friend. Refer to his personality or actions to give you a reason for your choice.
2. By reference to incidents, characters, or theme, explain why you would enjoy reading another book by the same author.
3. Retell the ending of the story. Explain why, in your opinion, this is a satisfactory culmination.
4. By referring to at least two ideas brought out in this book, tell why other teenagers would find the story helpful as well as entertaining.
5. Describe the setting used in this book and compare or contrast with your own environment (home, neighborhood).
6. Explain in what way this book has left a permanent impression upon you.

APPENDIX F

Junior High School Ladder*

Step IV

Moby Dick—Melville
Ivanhoe—Scott
Treasure Island—Stevenson
Huckleberry Finn—Clemens
Prester John—Buchan
David Copperfield—Dickens
Last of the Mohicans—Cooper
A Boy on Horseback—Steffens
The Prince and the Pauper—Clemens
Windows for the Crown Prince—Vining
Swiftwater—Annixter
North Winds Blow Free—Howard
Chucklebait—Scoggin
Lure of Danger—Scoggin
The Three Musketeers—Dumas
Captains Courageous—Kipling
Mutiny on the Bounty—Nordoff and Hall
The Gold Bug—Poe
Red Heifer—Davison
The Yearling—Rawlings
Jim Davis—Masefield
My Friend Flicka—O'Hara
The White Stag—Seredy
Starbuck Valley Winter—Haig-brown
Hie to the Hunters!—Stuart
North Star Shining—Swift
This Singing World for Younger Children—Untermeyer
I Hear America Singing—Barnes
All American—Tunis

Step III

Of Courage Undaunted—Daugherty
Two Logs Crossing—Edmonds
Farm Boy—Gorsline
Big Doc's Girl—Medearis
Mountain Laurel—Emery
Tree of Freedom—Caudill
Smoky—James
Call It Courage—Sperry
Nuvat the Brave—Doone
Mutineers—Hawes
Swift Rivers—Meigs
No Other White Man—Davis
Railroad to Freedom—Swift
Navy Diver—Felsen
Going on Sixteen—Cavanna
Escape on Skis—Stapp
The Chestry Oak—Seredy
Junior Poetry Cure—Schauffler
Twenty-one Balloons—DuBois
Young Fu of the Upper Yangtze—Lewis
Blue Willow—Gates
The Good Master—Seredy
Little Women—Alcott
Canthook County—Ames
Dive Bomber—Winston
Adam of the Road—Gray
Hari the Jungle Lad—Mukerji
Pecos Bill—Bowman
Miss Pickerell Goes to Mars—MacGregor
Lassie Come Home—Knight
Caddie Woodlawn—Brink

Step II

Red Horse Hill—Meader
Sachim Bird—Robinson
The Boy Knight of Rheims—Lownsberry
Lad with the Whistle—Brink
Ballet Shoes—Streatfield
Spunky—Hader
Dusty Star—Baker
Merrylips—Dix
Toby Tyler—Kaler

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* Dora V. Smith, *Junior High School Ladder, Spring, 1954*, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota, 1954 (mimeographed).

Big Red—Kjelgaard
Misty of Chincoteague—Henry
Paul Revere and His Horse—Lawson
Hans Brinker—Dodge
The Base Stealer—Bonner
Story of Doctor Dolittle—Lofting
Story-telling Ballads—Olcott
Stars to Steer By—Untermeyer
Willie Wong, American—Oakes
Young Mac of Fort Vancouver—Carr
Tim's Place—Evans
Paddle-to-the-Sea—Holling
Door-in-the-Wall—De Angeli
Sleighbells for Windy Foot—Frost
The Wonderful Year—Adams
Phantom Backfield—Brier
All Over Town—Brink
Blind Colt—Rounds
T-model Tommy—Meader
Cowboy Boots—Harst

Step I

The juvenile series, such as *Nancy Drew*, the *Bobbsey Twins*, *Beverly Gray*, *Bomba the Jungle Lad*, the *Hardy Boys*, *Ted Dixon*, and the like.

APPENDIX G

Books Rated According to Ability and Interest

SAMPLE (The teacher should make her own list depending on the books available in the library.)

E (Easy)	L (Low Level)	S (Standard)	A (Advanced)
ADVENTURE			
The Secret Cave by Florence M. Everson. *The Day of the Drag Race* by Philip Harkins.	*Call to Adventure* by Robert S. Benjamin *River Rising* by Hubert Skidmore.	*Fighting Yankee* by Robert E. Pike. *Border Adventure* by James W. English.	*The Silent Continent* by William H. Kerns. *The Iron Mistress* by Paul I. Wellman.
BIOGRAPHY			
Thomas Alva Edison by Clark G. Glenwood. *Mike Fink: Best of the Keelboatman* by Harold W. Felton.	*Teenagers Who Made History* by Russell Freedman. *Men of Science and Invention* Narrative by Michael Blow.	*Will Rogers, Immortal Cowboy* by Doris S. Garst. *The Helen Keller Story* by Catherine O. Peare.	*Timothy Dexter Revisited* by John P. Marquand. *The Story of My Life* by Helen Keller.
HUMOR			
Mr. Popper's Penguins by Richard and Florence Atwater. *Daniel Boone's Echo* by William O. Steele.	*Homer Price* by Robert McCloskey. *Mr. Benedict's Lion* by Walter Edmonds.	*I Couldn't Help Laughing* by Ogden Nash. *The Flight of the Dancing Bear* by Mark Rascovich.	*The Education of Hyman Kaplan* by Leo Rosten. *Visit to a Small Planet* by Gore Vidal.
SCIENCE			
Mission to the Moon by Lester Del Ray. *Young Man in a Hurry* by Jean Lee Latham.	*Prehistoric Animals* by Sam and Beryle Epstein. *Star Born* by Andre Norton.	*The Making of Man* by Cornwall and Howard. *Space Nomads* by Jean and Lincoln La Paz.	*The Challenge of the Space Ship* by Arthur C. Clarke *The Fastest Man Alive* by Frank Everest.

BROWARD COUNTY SCHOOLS
Home Reading Record

NAME		SCALE OF VALUES		RECORD OF READING TESTS		
Course		1.	I Read It Carefully	Date	Name of Test	Score
From School		2.	I Read It With Interest			
After Graduation		3.	Forced Myself To Read It			
Major Interest		4.	Did Not Finish It			

Home Room									
Term									
English Teacher									

Grade	TITLE OF BOOK	Pages	Value	AUTHOR	Type	Date Began	Date Finish	COMMENT

CUMULATIVE READING & WRITING RECORD
Broward County Public Schools

Suggested Writing Experiences For Junior High School

Descriptive paragraphs
Informative paragraphs
Short narratives
An autobiography
Verse
Short factual reports
Book reports
Announcements
Friendly letters
Thank-you notes
Invitations and replies
Letters to order materials
Letters to request information
GRADE SEVEN

Playlets
Summaries
Expository paragraphs
News reports for school papers
Committee reports
Minutes of club meetings
Letters to express congratulations
Letters to express sympathy
GRADE EIGHT

Feature stories for school papers
Statements of ideas, opinions, etc.
Answers to discussion questions
Telegrams and night letters
Letters to apply for a job
GRADE NINE

Reading Evaluation Key

Follow the model report on Tom Sawyer in recording the books you have read. The F stands for fiction; use N if your book is non-fiction.

Tell what you thought of each book by studying the code below and circling the appropriate numbers in your report.

Weaknesses

1. Dull or unlikely plot
2. Difficult to read
3. Unrealistic characters
4. Boring-didn't finish
5. Too childish

Strong Points

6. Easy reading
7. The best! Would recommend
8. Satisfactory ending
9. Fast action
10. Informative and/or useful

NAME:

SCHOOL	DATE	GRADE	TEACHER

Book Evaluation

Twain | Adventures of Tom Sawyer | F | 9/3/63 | 7

1 6
[✓ 2] [✓ 7]
3 [✓ 8]
4 9
5 10

Tom and his good friend Huck grow up in a sleepy little town on the Mississippi just before the Civil War. Twain says most of the boys' adventures really occurred. There is plenty here to keep you going — a graveyard murder, buried gold, and the terror of being lost for days in a subterranean cave. The story is full of the many old superstitions people believed in those days.

1 6
2 7
3 8

1 6
2 7
3 8

APPENDIX H

Index to Reading Materials for Students

1. *America, Past and Present.* Grades 7-9. List arranged for average, accelerated, and retarded readers. New York: H. W. Wilson.
2. *Arrow Book Club.* Grades 4-6. A wide selection of paperbacks available, some of which hold appeal to the junior high retarded reader. Scholastic Book Services.
3. *Book Bait.* Grades 7-12. Detailed notes on about 100 adult books popular with teen-agers. American Library Association, 50 E. Huron Street, Chicago, Illinois.
4. *Fare for the Reluctant Reader.* Grades 7-12. Includes lists of magazines, remedial texts, and book lists. State University of New York, Albany.
5. *Gateways to Readable Books.* Grades 9-12. (Ruth Strang). Books for the retarded high school reader grouped according to interests. New York: H. W. Wilson, 1958.
6. *Good Reading for Poor Readers.* K-12 (George Spache). Lists of 1000 trade books, adapted classics, textbooks, supplementary materials arranged topically and graded in reading and interest levels. Garrard Publishing Co., Champaign, Illinois (1964 revised).
7. *High-interest, Low-vocabulary Reading Materials.* Grades 1-7. Over 1000 titles for reading levels specified. Reprint available from Boston University School of Education, Boston, Massachusetts.
8. *Non-Fiction Books for Retarded Readers in the Upper Grades.* Included in the January 1951 issue of *Elementary English.* 508 S. E. 6th Street, Champaign, Illinois.
9. *Campus Book Club.* Grades 10-12. Paperbacks ranging from classics to current best sellers. *Teen-Age Book Club.* Grades 7-9. A paperback selection of appealing titles for the reluctant teen-age reader. Scholastic Book Services, 33 West 42nd Street, New York 36, New York.
10. *Your Reading* (also supplements). Grades 7-9. Titles suitable for retarded readers in high school are noted in addition to titles for average readers. National Council of Teachers of English, 508 S. E. 6th Street, Champaign, Illinois. *Books for You.* Grades 10-12 (also supplements). A list for leisure reading for use by students in senior high school.
11. *Paperbound Book Guide for High Schools.* A selective subject guide to over 4,300 inexpensive reprints and originals chosen especially for secondary school use by 121 cooperating publishers. R. R. Bowker Co., 1180 Avenue of the Americas, New York, 10036.
12. *An Inexpensive Science Library.* Washington, D. C., American Association for the Advancement of Science, 1960. Also *The Traveling High School Science Library,* 1959.

13. Grosset and Dunlap, Inc. 1107 Broadway, New York 10, New York. *Tempo Books*, 45 Educator-approved paperbacks for readers of junior high school and high school age. *Universal Library*, *Universal Reference Library*. Special interest books for young adults. *Signature Books*. Reading level 3rd and 4th grade, interest level to 8th grade.

14. H. W. Wilson Co., New York. *Book Selections for School Libraries* by Ozile Wofford, 1962.

APPENDIX I

Mechanical Training Aids

Films

Iowa High School Reading Training Films—Fourteen films for rate training, accompanied by comprehension tests. For sale only. Iowa State University.

Phrase Reading—Thirteen training films for high school and college groups. Teacher's manual and student's workbooks available. C-B Educational Films.

Purdue Reading Films—Seventeen films for training at various speeds. For high school, college, and adult groups. Instructor's manual and check tests available. For sale only. Purdue University.

Filmstrips

Better Reading Series—A group of 70 filmstrips designed to improve speed of recognition of words and phrases. Thirty strips stress basic words and presumably can be used at levels ranging from the first grade to high school. Stillfilm.

Controlled Exposure Series—A group of 14-36 filmstrips is intended to offer training in: symbols, numbers, small letters, capital letters, spaced letters, words and phrases. The word and phrase groups are available at primary, intermediate and high school levels. These strips are used with the Tach-X, a filmstrip projector adapted to tachistoscopic projection. EDL.

Controlled Reader Series—Groups of filmstrips are presented for primary, intermediate, junior high and high school-college levels for rapid reading of lines of print uncovered by a moving slot. For use in the controlled Reader, a still film projector especially adapted for this type of exposure. Junior or table model also available. EDL.

Craig Reader—Filmstrip embedded in plastic is inserted in individual viewer. Line by line exposures of digits or reading selections is basic technique. Tests and practice books are also offered. Craig.

The Perceptoscope—Offers reading training programs for adults, college, junior and senior high school groups. Includes filmstrips, test booklets, practice reading materials, and vocabulary study booklets. EDL.

Readamatic Pacer—A small bar moves down the page at speeds varying from 100 to 1000 words a minute to pace the reader. Americana Interstate Corp., Mundelein, Illinois.

Reading Speed-i-o-Strip Series—Sixteen filmstrips for training in rapid recognition of basic sight vocabulary, words groups and familiar objects. Designed for tachistoscopic projection. Offered for use at all grade levels up to and including high school. SVE.

Tachist-O-Filmstrips—Offers a variety of strips for tachistoscopic training in word recognition, phrase and paragraph reading, perceptual training, number recognition, study of prefixes and suffixes, and phonics. Learning Through Seeing.

Slides

Minnesota Efficient Reading—Group of 12 slides offering training in a basic selection of roots and affixes. Keystone.

Tachistoscopic Training Series. For perceptual span development. Includes slide for words, phrases, sentences, digits and geometric forms. Keystone.

Other Devices

AVR Flash-Tachment—Used for adapting any 2 × 2 slide or film projector into a tachistoscope with speed control from 1/25 to 1/100 second. Audio-Visual Research.

AVR Rateometer—The movement of a plastic shutter down the page at controlled rates permits pacing of the reader, and is adjustable to a wide range of reading speeds. Audio-Visual Research.

Berg, Paul C., Taylor, Stanford E. and Frackenpohl, Helen. *Skimming and Scanning.* New York: Educational Developmental Laboratories, 1962. Workbook, pp. 84; Text, pp. 224. *EDL Skimmer.* New York: Educational Developmental Laboratories, 1962. The Skimmer is a training device which projects a bead of light down the page to aid the reader in skimming or scanning in the practice materials. Materials suitable for high school-college.

Flash-X—A hand tachistoscope with training materials of letters, numbers, arithmetic combinations, words and spelling words. EDL.

Franklin Pacer—A pacer with interchangeable shutters, one broad shutter to prevent regressions; a second, a thin rod to guide advanced readers. Franklin Research.

Keystone Reading Pacer—An electrically-controlled metal rod moves down over reading material, thus setting a pace for the reader. Adjustable to a wide range of reading speeds. Keystone.

Keystone Tachistoscope—An overhead projector using single or double size lantern slides. Offered for increasing both span and speed of perception. (See Slides for descriptions of training materials.) Keystone.

Keystone Tachette—An individual hand tachistoscope using the slides made for the overhead tachistoscope. Keystone.

Reading Rate Controller—A pacer using a broad shutter to guide the reader. Rate controlled from 50-2000 words per minute. Teacher's manual available. Stereo-Optical.

Reading Pacer—An inexpensive pacing device operated on flashlight batteries. A bar moves down the page to predetermined rate. T. Y. Crowell.

Reading Trainer—Specially printed matter is inserted in the apparatus and rotated past an opening at rates which are controlled and which vary from 20 to 2800 words per minute. The reverse side of the reading matter contains a comprehension test on which the reader mechanically records his answers by pushing buttons on the machine. Stencils for liquid process duplication of the necessary reading materials are made available. Reading Trainer.

Shadowscope Reading Pacer—An elevated bar projects a moving light on reading materials, thus pacing the reader down the page. Adjustable to varying rates of reading. Lafayette.

Skimmer—Projects a moving head of light down the center fold to monitor skimming or scanning. EDL.

SRA Reading Accelerator—A full shutter is moved down over a single page of reading materials at controlled rates, thus pacing the reader's progress. Also available in a portable, non-electric model. Science Research Associates.

SVE Speed-I-O-Scope—A tachistoscopic shutter which may be used with filmstrip projectors of certain sizes. Provides exposure speeds from 1/1000 to 1 second or longer, and control of brightness of image. Another less expensive model providing shutter speeds of 1/25 and 1/100 is also available. SVE.

Tachistoscope Shadowscope—Combines tachistoscopic practice on filmstrip projection with moving light on reading materials in one device. Psychotechnics.

Tachist-o-Timer—An electronically controlled timing device, for the projection of tachistoscopic materials. Learning Through Seeing.

Tachist-O-Tutorette. A small filmstrip projector may be fitted into this ground glass viewer for the tachistoscopic presentation of reading materials to individuals or a small group. Learning Through Seeing.

Vu-Tach—A near-point tachistoscope with six exposure speeds from 1/100 to 1 second. Franklin Research.

Perceptamatic—A simple tachistoscope employing View-Master reels. Stresses quick recognition of digits, words and phrases ranging from first to eighth grade. Stanley Bowmar.

APPENDIX J

Reading Manuals and Workbooks for High School

	Skill
Altick, Richard D. "Preface to Critical Reading." 4th edition. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1960.	Critical
Atlantic Monthly Company. "The Atlantic Guide to Better Reading Skills." Boston: Atlantic Monthly Company.	General
Bailey, Matilda and Ullin W. Leavell. "Mastery of Reading." New York: American Book Company, 1951. (Jr. High)	General
Boning, Richard A. "Using the Context." Rockville Centre, New York: Barnell Loft, 1962.	Vocabulary
Boyd, Jessie, et al. "Books, Libraries and You." New York: Scribners and Sons, 1949.	Library
Caughran, Alex M. and Lee Harrison Mountain. "High School Reading." New York: American Book Company, 1961.	General
Cherington, Marie R. "Improving Reading Skills in College Subjects." New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1961.	Content Fields
Didas, Mary. "Words and Ideas." New York: College Entrance Book Company, 1959.	Vocabulary
Diederich, A. F. "How to Improve Your Reading: A Guide to Success in School." East Rockaway, New York: Study Books, Inc.	Study Skills
Drachman, Julian M. "Making Friends With Words." New York: Globe Book Company, 1956.	Vocabulary
Ernst, Margaret S. "Words: English Roots and How They Grow." New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1937. (Jr. High)	Vocabulary
Fedde, Norman A. "Preparing for College Study." New Haven: Readers Press, 1961.	Study Skills
Feigenbaum, Lawrence H. "Effective Reading." New York: Globe Book Company, 1953.	General
Gainsburg, J. C. and S. I. Spector. "Better Reading." New York: Globe Book Company, 1943. (Jr. High)	Study Skills
Gerken, C. d'A. "Study Your Way Through School." Science Research Associates, 1947.	Study Skills

Gerken, C. d'A. and Alice Kemp. "Make Your Study Hours Count." Chicago: Science Research, 1956. (Jr. High)	Study Skills
Gilmartin, John. "Quiz on Words." New York: American Book Company, 1940. (Jr. High)	Vocabulary
Gray, W. S., Gwen Horsman, and Marion Monroe. "Basic Reading Skills for High School Use." Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1958.	General
Gray, William S., Marion Monroe, and A. Sterl Artley "Basic Reading Skills for Junior High School Use." Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1957. (Jr. High)	General
Greene, Amsel. "Word Clues." Evanston: Row, Peterson, 1949.	Vocabulary
Guiller, W. S. and J. H. Coleman. "Reading for Meaning." Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1955. (Jr. and Sr. High)	General
Haber, Louis and Lawrence Samuels. "How to Study Science." New York: College Entrance Book Company, 1959.	Science
Hardwick, H. C. "Words Are Important." New York: Hammond, 1951. (Jr. and Sr. High)	Vocabulary
Hardy, Lois Lynn. "How to Study in High School." Palo Alto: Pacific Books, 1954.	Study Skills
Hart, Archibald and F. Lejenne. "The Growing Vocabulary." New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1940. (Jr. High)	Vocabulary
Herzberg, Max J., Merrill P. Paine, and Austin Works. "For Better Reading Series." Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1940. (Jr. and Sr. High School)	General
Heston, Joseph C. "How to Take a Test." Chicago: Science Research, 1953.	Study Skills
Hovious, Carol. "New Trails in Reading." Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1956.	General
Johnson, Eleanor M. "Diagnostic Reading Workbooks." Columbus: Charles E. Merrill Books, Inc., 1939. (Jr. High)	General
Johnson, Eleanor M. "Modern Reading." Columbus: Charles E. Merrill. (Jr. and Sr. High)	General
Kay, Sylvia C. "Reading Critically in the Fields of Literature and History." New York: Twayne Publishers, 1952.	Critical
McCall, W. A. and G. W. Norvell "Improve Your Reading." New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, Inc., 1942.	General
McCall, William A. and Lelah Mae Crabbs. "Standard Test Lessons in Reading." New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1926. (Jr. and Sr. High)	General
Manuel, H. T. "Taking a Test: How to Do Your Best." Yonkers: World Book Company, 1956.	Study Skills

Mathews, M. M. "Words: How to Know Them." New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1956.	Vocabulary
Miller, Ward S. "Word Wealth Junior." New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1950. (Jr. High)	Vocabulary
Minteer, Catherine. "Words and What They Do to You." Evanston: Row, Peterson, 1952. (Jr. High)	Vocabulary
Monson, Samuel C. "Word Building." New York: Macmillan Company, 1958.	Vocabulary
Morris, William. "It's Easy to Increase Your Vocabulary." New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1957.	Vocabulary
Murphy, George, Helen R. Miller, and Nell A. Miller. "Let's Read." New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1953. (Jr. and Sr. High)	General
Orr, Ethel, et al. "Reading Today." New York: Scribners and Sons, 1947. (Jr. High)	General
Parker, Don H. "SRA Reading Laboratory." Chicago: Science Research, 1957. (Jr. and Sr. High)	General
Pooley, Robert C. et al. "Vanguard." Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1961. (Jr. High)	Word Attack
Preston, Ralph C. and Morton Botel. "How to Study." Chicago: Science Research, 1956.	Study Skills
Richman, Frances B. and E. Wiser. "Reading Is Fun." Syracuse: L. W. Singer.	General
Robbins, A. Allen. "Word Study for Improved Reading." New York: Globe Book Company, 1954.	Word Attack
Roberts, Clyde. "Word Attack." New York: Harcourt, Brace and World. (Jr. High)	Word Attack
Rollins, Charlemae. "The Magic World of Books." Chicago: Science Research, 1954. (Jr. High)	Interests
Rudd, Josephine. "Word Attack Manual." Cambridge: Educators Publishing Service, 1961.	Word Attack
Ryan, Nellie F. "Your Reading Guide." Chicago: Lyons and Carnahan, 1945. (Jr. High)	Study Skills
Santa, Beauel M. and Lois Lynn Hardy. "How to Use the Library." Palo Alto: Pacific Books, 1955. (Jr. High)	Library
Schumacker, Melba, George B. Schick, and Bernard Schmidt. "Design for Good Reading." New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1962. (Jr. and Sr. High)	General
Schweitzer, Paul and Donald W. Lee. *Harbrace Vocabulary Workshop*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, 1957.	Vocabulary
Simpson, Elizabeth A. "SRA Better Reading Books." Chicago: Science Associates, 1950. (Jr. and Sr. High)	General
Smith, Elmer R., et al. "Invitation to Reading Series." New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, 1945. (Jr. High)	General
Smith, Nila Banton. "Be a Better Reader." New York: Prentice-Hall, 1958. (Jr. and Sr. High)	Content Field

Spencer, Paul R., et al. "Driving the Reading Road," "Progress on Reading Roads." New York" Lyons and Carnahan, 1943. (Jr. High)	Content Field
Strang, Ruth. "Study Type of Reading Exercises." New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1956.	Content Field
Taylor, Stanford E., Helen Frankenpohl, and Arthur S. McDonald. EDL "Word Clues Series." Huntington, New York: Educational Developmental Laboratories. (Jr. and Sr. High)	Vocabulary
Toser, Marie A. "Library Manual." New York: H. W. Wilson, 1955.	Library
Wagner, Guy L., et al. "Readers Digest Reading Skill Builder." New York: Readers Digest Educational Service. (Jr. High)	General
Witty, Paul. "How to Become a Better Reader." Chicago: Science Research, 1962. (Jr. High)	General
Witty, Paul. "How to Improve Your Reading." Chicago: Science Research, 1956. (Jr. and Sr. High)	General
Witty, Paul and Harry Bricker. "You Can Read Better." Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1951. (Jr. High)	General
Witty, Paul and Edith Grotberg. "Developing Your Vocabulary." Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1960.	Vocabulary
Wright, E. L. "Read Awhile." Atlanta: Economy, 1948. (Jr. High)	General
Wrightstone J. Wayne. "How to Be a Better Student." Chicago: Science Research, 1956.	Study Skills
Gainsburg, Joseph C., *Advanced Skills in Reading*. Books 1, 2, 3. New York: Macmillan, 1962-64.	General
Herin, Ruth B. and Stearns, Gertrude B., editors, *Help Yourself to Improve Your Reading*. Parts One and Two. Pleasantville, N. Y.: Reader's Digest Services, 1962-63. (For Jr. H.S.—digested articles with a few suggestions for self-improvement).	General

APPENDIX K

Kits and Other Devices for Reading Improvement

Coburn, Doris, editor. *Messner Classroom Library*. New York: Julian Messner. A custom-packed classroom library of ten biographies related to the "Opening of the West." Substitute titles if preferred.

Kottmeyer, William and Kay Ware. *Webster Classroom Reading Clinic*. St. Louis: Webster Publishing. Each kit contains materials for 10 or 20 pupils. Included are a word recognition skills workbook; a remedial spelling workbook; a textbook on remedial reading; over 200 individual comprehension exercises; a set of 63 word wheels for phonic and structural analysis; ten copies of an adapted series, the *Everyreaders*, in paperback; and the Dolch basic sight vocabulary cards and Group Word Teaching Game. Teacher's editions of the workbooks also included in the kit. The kit is apparently intended for elementary and older pupils who are reading on primary levels.

Martin, Bill, Jr. *Reading-Time Library*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston. A collection of 40 books for K-2 for the classroom library. Teacher's guide available.

McLaughlin, Rita E., et al. *The Literature Sampler*. Chicago: Learning Materials, 1962. Excerpts from 144 interesting books. To stimulate reading interests.

McLaughlin, Rita E., et al. *The Sampler Library*. Chicago: Learning Materials, 1962. 50 paperbacks of those previewed in the Literature Sampler.

Naslund, Robert A. *SRA Graph and Picture Study Skills Kit*. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1962. Individualized materials for skill development.

Naslund, Robert A. *SRA Map and Globe Skills Kit*. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1962. Sequential training in map reading skills.

Naslund, Robert A. *SRA Organizing and Reporting Skills Kit*. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1962. Training in preparing summaries and reports.

Niles, Olive S., et al. *Tactics in Reading*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman, 1961. Corrective materials for poor ninth grade readers.

Parker, Don H., et al. *SRA Reading Laboratories*. Chicago: Science Research Associates. Each kit contains a large number of graded reading selections and exercises in power and speed of comprehension and listening. Parallel kits stressing phonics skills are available for the first three grades. Separate kits for each of first six grades; one for 4-6; one for grades 7-9; one for grades 8-10 as well as a general kit for secondary and another for college preparatory pupils. Science Research Associates.

Robinson, H. Alan, Stanford E. Taylor, and Helen Frackenpohl. *EDL Study Skills Library: Science; Social Studies; Reference Skills*. Huntington, New York: Educational Development Laboratories, 1961.

Separate kits of individualized exercises, for grades 3-9. At each grade level, each of the three kits presents a variety of interesting, informational exercises.

Scholastic Literature Units. New York: Scholastic Book Services, 1960. A kit for a unit in literature involving individualized reading. Offers 40 copies of a class anthology, multiple copies of five or six novels, multiple copies of fifteen titles of varying reading levels, teacher's guide, student tests and record forms. All books are carefully selected paperbacks, related to a central theme, such as Animals (grade 7), Courage (grade 8), etc.

SRA Classroom Library. Offers 30 books of varying reading levels, teacher's manual and student record book. Intended to promote individualized reading, with comprehension checks. Set IIC for sixth grade now available; others in process. Science Research Associates.

SRA Pilot Library. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1962. Contains 72 excerpts from interesting books of varying reading levels. Each excerpt is bound in paperback and requires one half hour reading. To stimulate reading interests and individualized reading. Set IIA for IV, IIC for VI, and the IIIB for VIII now ready. Science Research Associates.

Thurstone, Thelma G. *Reading for Understanding*. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1958. A kit of 400 groups of graded paragraphs, to promote inductive, inferential thinking. Two kits: one for grades 5-12, the other for 3-8 available. Science Research Associates.

Whitman Classroom Bookshelf. Offers packaged paperbacks libraries, varying in level and content. Beginner's Series (86 books for K-6); Junior Series (44 books for 4-8); Learn About Series (12 on science for 4-7); Badger Series (14 on social science for 4-8); Classic Series (18 from classic literature for 4-8). Science Research Associates.

Woodcrafters Guild. *Syllabascope*. Washington, D. C.: St. Alban's School. Offers wooden card holder with sliding shutters which mask parts of words during syllabication or word analysis. Large teacher's model also available. Box of polysyllabic words accompanies holder.

Bantam Books Learning Units. New York: Bantam Books, 1963. Each unit or theme group consists of 35 copies of a core book or two, several copies of related books, plus a teacher's manual. More than 20 Units in a number of literary and social science topics for junior and senior high school are offered.

Bantam Books Classroom Reading Library. New York: Bantam Books, 1963. Offers group of 22 to 27 titles selected for range of interests, plus teacher's manual and metal library shelf. For junior-senior high school.

Loretan, Joseph O., editor, *Building Reading Power*. Columbus: Charles E. Merrill, 1964. The kit contains 5 each of 15 programmed booklets of 8-12 pages on context clues, structural analysis and comprehension. For fifth grade and up.

Niles, Olive S. et. al., *Tactics in Reading, I and II*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman, 1961, 1964. Boxed classroom sets of corrective skill exercises coordinated with an anthology. Kit I for ninth graders; II, for tenth.

APPENDIX L

A Selected List of Professional Aids in Secondary Reading

Bamman, Henry A., Ursula Hogan, and Charles E. Greene. *Reading Instruction in the Secondary School.* New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1961.

Bullock, Harrison. *Helping the Non-Reading Pupil in the High School.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1956.

Cleary, Florence Damon. *Blueprints for Better Reading.* New York: H. W. Wilson, 1957.

Elkins, Deborah. *Reading Improvement in the Junior High School.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1963.

Fay, Leo C. *Reading in the High School.* Washington: National Education Association, 1956.

Gray, William S., Editor. *Basic Instruction in Reading in Elementary and High Schools.* ("Supplementary Educational Monographs," No. 65.) Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1948.

Gray, William S., editor. *Improving Reading in All Curriculum Areas.* ("Supplementary Educational Monographs," No. 76.) Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1952.

Gunn, M. Agnella, et al. *What We Know About High School Reading.* Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1958.

Henry, Nelson B., editor. *Reading in the High School and College.* 47th Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1948.

Hobson, Clay S. *Teaching Reading in the High School.* Kansas Studies in Education 10 (February 1960) 1-47.

Jewett, Arno. *Improving Reading in the Junior High School.* Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Bulletin No. 10. Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1957.

Karlin, Robert. *Teaching Reading in High School.* Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1963.

Miller, Lyle L. *Teaching Reading Efficiency.* Boulder: Pruett Press, 1963.

New Jersey Secondary School Teachers' Association. *All Teachers Can Teach Reading.* Plainfield, New Jersey, 1951.

Newton, J. Roy. *Reading in Your School.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1960. Chapters V, VII-IX, XI-XII.

Penty, Ruth C. *Reading Ability and High School Drop-outs.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1956.

"Reading Instruction for the Slow Learner in the Secondary School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary Principals*, 35 (February 1951), 11-55.

Reading Manuals. Gainsburg, Joseph C. *Advanced Skills in Reading*, Books 1, 2, and 3. New York: Macmillan Company, 1962, 1964. (General)

"Reading Problems in the Secondary School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary Principals*, 39 (September 1955), 3-55.

Simpson, Elizabeth. *Helping High School Students Read Better*. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1954.

Spache, George D. *Toward Better Reading*. Champaign, Illinois: Garrard, 1963. Chapters III, XVI.

Stewart, L. Jane, Frieda M. Heller, and Elsie J. Alberty. *Improving Reading in the Junior High School*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1957.

Strang, Ruth. *Diagnostic Teaching of Reading*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1964.

Strang, Ruth, Constance M. McCullough, and Arthur E. Traxler. *Problems in the Improvement of Reading*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1961.

Triggs, Frances Oralind. *We All Teach Reading*. New York: By the Author, 1964.

Umans, Shelley. *New Trends in Reading Instruction*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1963.

Ward, Earl F. *Spelling and Vocabulary: Reinforce Your Learnings*. San Francisco: Chandler, 1961. (Vocabulary)

Weiss, M. Jerome. *Reading in the Secondary Schools*. New York: Odyssey, 1961. Parts II and III.

Willson, Margaret F. and J. Wesley Schneyer. *Developmental Reading in the Junior High School*. Danville, Illinois: Interstate Printers and Publishers, 1959.

Crosby, Muriel, editor, *Reading Ladders for Human Relations*. Fourth edition. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1963.

Dunn, Anita E., Jackman, Mabel E. and Newton, J. Roy, *Fare for the Reluctant Reader*. Third edition. Albany, N.Y.: Capital Area Development Association, State University of New York at Albany. 1964.

Karlin, Robert, chairman, *Perspectives in Reading: No. 2. Reading Instruction in Secondary Schools*. Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1964.

Spache, George D. *Good Reading for Poor Readers*. Revised 1964. Champaign, Illinois: Garrard Publishing, 1964.

Umans, Shelley, Designs for Reading Programs. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964.

APPENDIX M

Programed Materials

Programed materials such as these consist of an extended series of simple questions each of which demands a written (constructed) response or a multiple-choice response. The pupil's response is immediately reinforced or corrected by reading the correct answer. This reinforcement becomes available by turning the page or uncovering the next frame, as it is called. The pupil proceeds down the page or from one page to the next from one frame to the next thus advancing in learning steadily by very small steps.

Some programs are primarily intended for use in a teaching machine, a device which is designed to reveal one frame at a time, to advance the program step by step, concealing the correct answer until after the student has responded. Sometimes the frames are printed on one paper roll, and the student's answers are recorded on another roll, thus permitting reuse of the program by simply providing a fresh answer roll. Other machines permit the recording of the pupil's answers by punching a hole; sorting cards, pressing a key or some other means. Many programs originally intended for use in a specific teaching machine may, however, be adapted to non-machine use by providing a mask or strip designed to cover the reinforcing answers until the student has responded.

A number of the programs we have listed are issued in paperback or hard cover as an ordinary textbook might be. These programed texts may be employed in the classroom for individuals or groups who are capable of working independently, just as other common teaching materials would be.

Our descriptions have attempted to include such information as: the content of the program; the grade levels for which it is intended; the length of the program in frames or hours; the unit cost; and whether the material is offered in a programed text or must be used in conjunction with some teaching machine.

Programs

Andrego, Pat, Polo C. deBaca, John Fullilove, and Theodore Strancsek. *Modern English Series: Remedial Reading*. New York: TMI—Grolier. Programed text for beginning readers who have deficiencies in reading skills. 2500 frames, 15 to 35 hours, price not given. Probably in process.

Anwyll, B. Jean. Word Clues: *Be a Word Detective*. Cambridge, Mass.: Honor Products. A 200 frame, 1½ hour program in context clues for intermediate grades and up. For use in Honor Teaching Machine ($20). Program is reusable and sells for $2.00.

Astra, Programing Staff. *400 Spelling Demons by Fitzgerald*. New London, Conn.: Astra Corp. Pack of cards, 400 frames in boxes. Cards to be used in *Autoscore* machine. Stresses meaning, pronunciation and spelling of 400 hard words. $6.00 for cards. Unit, final and diagnostic tests available. No information on level for which intended.

Bierman, Emanuel and Alexander Schure. *Spelling Demons I and II*. Chicago: Central Scientific. For use in Cenco Programed Learner ($2.95). Each program 500 frames or 3 hours. Probably for junior-senior high school.

Bierman, Emanuel and Alexander Schure. Vocabulary *Building I and II*. Chicago: Central Scientific. For use in Cenco Programed Learner ($2.95). Each program is 500 frames or about three hours. Program not reusable. Probably intended for secondary pupils.

Bondanza, William J. and William A. Bacci. *Phonics for Pupils*. New London, Conn.: Croft Educational Services. Part I includes 225 frames for elementary pupils on alphabet, vowels, consonants, blends, digraphs and endings. Part II, 103 frames on vowel digraphs, dipthongs, prefixes, suffixes, and syllabication. Each part of this programed text sold only in multiples of 25, $15.00.

Brown, James I. *Programed Vocabulary*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1964. Pages x plus 214. $2.20. Presents 34 prefixes and roots in fourteen key words. These word elements presumably introduce the student to 14,000 related common words. Approximately 900 frames requiring perhaps 4-5 hours. Intended for high school and college students.

Deighton, Lee C. and Adrian B. Sanford. *The Macmillan Spectrum of Books*. New York: Macmillan Company, 1964.

Devereaux Foundation. *Remedial Reading*. Devon, Penn.: Devereaux Teaching Aids. Includes 16 workbooks, 2016 frames each, $24.50 the set. For use in Devereaux Teaching Aids, Model 50 only. ($89.50) For students showing reading disability. Each workbook requires approximately one hour, but would need to be repeated several times.

Fergus, Patricia. *Spelling Improvement: A Program for Self-Instruction*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1964. pp. 220. $2.95. Offers 4792 frames, intended for secondary or college students.

Fry, Edward B. *Lessons for Self-Instruction in Basic Skills*. Monterey: California Test Bureau, 1963. Separate programs for reference skills, following directions, interpretation (2) and vocabulary (2). Each program available in separate booklet for grades 3-4, 5-6, 7-8, and 9. Each 64 to 128 pages, $.80.

General Education, Inc. *Studentutor Library of Matching Exercises*. Cambridge, Mass.: General Education. A 360 frame, 5 hour, readiness program for use in the Studentutor Teaching Machine. Cost for 5 machines and 18 copies of program is $45.00

General Education, Inc. *Study Skills for Home Use.* Cambridge, Mass.: General Education. The 2400 frame, 24 hour program (and machine) is priced at $30.00. Program is reusable and probably suitable for junior-senior high school.

General Education, Inc. *Studentutor Library of Vocabulary Enrichment.* Cambridge, Mass.: General Education. Eighteen copies of this 840 frame, 9 hour secondary program, and 5 Studentutor machines are priced at $45.00. Teacher's manual included.

General Programed Teaching Corp. *Improving Your Spelling.* Chicago: Encyclopedia Britannica Press. Programed text, 2106 frames or 10 hours, paperback for junior high school. Offers training in proofreading spellings.

Institute of Educational Research. *The Basal Progressive Choice Reading Program.* Washington, D. C.: Institute of Educational Research. For beginning readers, or mentally retarded pupils, the programed text of 400 frames offers a basic reading program consisting of letter forms and sounds, words and sentences. Each segment of the program $1.00.

Inrad. *Your Personal Tutor in: Spelling.* Lubbock, Texas: Inrad. Programed Text, 3000 frames, for 6th grade. Duration of program not given. Stresses phonic and structural analysis and spelling. Price not given.

Johnson, Paul and Renate Lepehne. *Study Skills.* Cambridge, Mass.: Honor Products. A 200 frame, 1½ hour program in study habits and skills. Probably for secondary level. For use in Honor Teaching Machine ($20). Program is reusable and priced at $2.00.

Kain, Helen. *Persuasive Words.* Cambridge, Mass.: Honor Products. A 200 frame, 1½ hour program for use in Honor Teaching Machine ($20). Suitable for secondary pupils. Cost $2.00.

Larimore, Jane B. and Willard Abraham. *How to Improve Your Reading.* Chicago: Coronet Instructional Films. This 300 frame paperback program for seventh grade reading ability offers some training in developmental reading skills. Price $1.20. Teacher's manual included.

Learning, Inc. *David Discovers the Dictionary.* Chicago: Coronet Instructional Films. A 300 frame, programed text for fourth grade pupils. Price $1.20. Teacher's manual included.

Learning, Inc. *Latitude and Longitude.* Chicago: Coronet Instructional Films. Programed text, 380 frames or 3½ hours, for grade 6. Teaches finding locations on maps, latitude, longitude, meridians, etc. $1.20 each.

Learning, Inc. *Maps: How We Read Them.* Chicago: Coronet Instructional Films. A 315 frame programed text for sixth grade. Price $1.20. Teacher's manual included.

Learning, Inc. *Using the Dictionary.* Tempe, Arizona: Learning, Inc. A program for elementary pupils. Still in progress.

Learning, Inc. *Vocabulary Growth*—Divide and Conquer Words. Chicago: Coronet Instructional Films. Programed text for grades 10-12. Teaches a number of prefixes and roots and the use of these in deriving meanings for words in context. $1.20 each. 340 frames, unit and final texts, teacher's manual.

Learning, Inc. *Your Study Skills.* Chicago: Coronet Instructional Films. Programed text teaches skimming, scanning, summarizing, note-taking, and reviewing. For junior-senior high school. $1.20 each. Final tests included. Includes 285 frames requiring about 3 hours.

Lepehne, Renate. *Building Words*. Cambridge, Mass.: Honor Products. A 200 frame, 1½ hour program in structural analysis for secondary pupils. For use in Honor Teaching Machine ($20). Price of program $2.00.

Markle, Susan Meyer. *Words*. Chicago: Science Research Associates. Training in prefixes, affixes, etc. 2200 frames, 20-30 hours, $1.50 each. Teacher's manual and test booklet available at $.35 and free, respectively. Offered for 7th grade. Other parallel workbooks for 8-12 to be available later.

McEvoy, Paul. *Learning How to Use the Dictionary*. New York: Macmillan, 1963. Includes 245 frames in 99 pages. For intermediate grade pupils. Programed text is reusable. Offers progress tests and teacher's manual. $1.48 each text, tests and manuals extra.

Merit Associates. *Beginning Sight Vocabulary*. San Francisco: E-Z Sort Systems. For primary grades, 945 frames, 30 hours. For use in E-Z Sort Systems Teaching Machine only. ($175.65). For normal or retarded primary readers.

Merit Associates. *Beginning Spelling*. San Francisco: E-Z Sort Systems. Programed text, 1500 frames for primary grades. Based on response device using edge-punched cards.

Middlemas, Virginia, et al. *Contextual Clues*. New York: Center for Programed Instruction. A brief program on contextual clues, apparently still in unfinished form. $.80 each.

Middlemas, Virginia, et al. *Phonetic Analysis*. New York: Center for Programed Instruction, 1961. Programed text for primary or remedial children. Divided into six units or parts, each printed separately. Includes consonants, vowels, short vowel sounds, initial consonant "b," blend "st," and hard and soft sound of c and g. $3.00 for the complete program. Each part is approximately 60 frames.

Middlemas, Virginia, et al. *Structural Analysis*. New York: Center for Programed Instruction, 1961. For primary or remedial pupils. Includes six parts printed separately: endings *s*, *ed*, and *ing; er; est; 's;* compound words; *en*. $3.00 for the entire program. Each part is approximately 60 frames.

Reid, James M., John Ciardi, and Laurence Perrine. *Poetry: A Closer Look*. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1963. pp. x plus 117. $1.60. This is a unique application of programing to the detailed reading, interpretation and analysis of a poem. The text also includes several essays and many excerpts to illustrate rhythm, meter and metaphor, as well as an anthology of 38 poems to which the method of analysis already taught might be applied. Suitable for secondary-college use.

Rosenberg, Ruth B. *Fun with Words*. Cambridge, Mass.: Honor Products. Offers three programs on homonyms of 200 frames each. For use with the Honor Teaching Machine (approximately $20). Programs are reusable. Probably intended for initial teaching in intermediate grades. $2.00 each.

Schramm, Wilbur, Herbert Potell, and George D. Spache. *Steps to Better Reading*, Book One. New York: Harcourt, Brace and World. This programed text of 808 frames and other materials is offered for developmental reading training in grade 7. Price $1.72. Teacher's manual available as well as unit and final tests. Other programs for grades 8-9 in preparation. Intended for a one hour per week training program.

Snyder, George. *Spelling Improvement 18*. Torrance, Calif.: Education Engineering, Inc., 6480 frames for use in special teaching machine.

Sullivan Associates. *Programed Reading*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co. This 144 page programed text is not yet completed, as of September 1963. Is intended for beginning readers.

Taylor, Stanford E., Helen Frackenpohl, and Arthur S. McDonald. *Word Clues*. Huntington, New York: Educational Developmental Laboratories. Seven programed texts, 930 frames each for grades 7-13. Each provides contextual exercises for approximately 300 words. $1.80 each. Diagnostic tests available for selecting appropriate text.

Teaching Materials Corp. *Modern English Series: First Steps in Reading*. A programed reading primer of 2500 frames, 25 hours. $10.00. For beginning readers.

Teaching Materials Corp. *Modern English Series: Spelling Rules*. New York: TMI-Grolier. Stresses phonics, word structure as well as spelling conventions. For third grade up, and as remedial for high school and college students. Three thousand frames, 12 to 24 hours, $13.50 in programed textbook version.

Universal Teaching Machine Institute. *Spelling U-3007*. Hackensack, New Jersey: Universal Electronics Laboratories Corp. Suitable for intermediate grades and up. 2160 frames, $14.95, 24 to 28 hours. Programed text.

Williams, Charles. *Reading: Word Recognition*. Washington, D. C.: Publishers Co. For use in Teach-all machine $63.95, this 800 frame, one hour program, in beginning word recognition, is priced at $24.95.

Zaborska, Marta. *Synonyms, Antonyms, Homonyms*. Tempe, Arizona: Learning, Inc. A programed text of 34 frames, $.15 each. For grades 5-6. Teaches meaning of these three concepts.